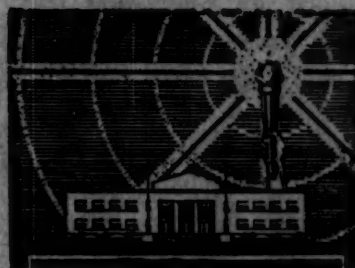


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VOLUME I, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1959

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The Social Studies

VOLUME L, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1959

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As the Editor Sees It

A few years ago this department advocated, as a means of coping with one of our greatest social problems, the resurrection of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Recently the idea has been given impetus from official sources through its support by Senator Humphrey of Minnesota, and the publication of his arguments for it in a national weekly. We sincerely hope that the Senator will follow through on his ideas, and seek to implement them by Congressional action. The original C.C.C. was the least controversial of all the New Deal programs and one of the most generally esteemed. It should not be too difficult, nor politically hazardous, for a man of Humphrey's stature to press actively for a new C.C.C. in one form or another.

The original program was set up first to combat unemployment among youth and young men, and secondly to foster badly needed conservation projects. The second need is of course still with us, and always will be. The first is no less acute than it was, though of a somewhat different type today. What is needed now is a well-organized civilian army corps where youth of 16 and older, out of school and not gainfully employed, can either voluntarily or by assignment by juvenile authorities, spend a year or two in hard, useful outdoor work. It is this group of older boys, of full physical powers, but not yet assimilated by adult society, that provides the body of potential or actual delinquents. From this group of young men, who are not and probably should not be in the average school, come the corner loungers, the gangs, the "misfits" who cannot be controlled by their parents and have not the maturity or the skills to find adequate employment.

What these boys need are time, security,

a healthy environment, and experience in the discipline of regular work. Army service has been the answer for a good many. But there is too great a time lag between leaving school and being inducted for military service. It is this gap that the C.C.C. could fill, by providing a program of activity during those years in which many youth acquire habits of indolence, violence and a disrespect for all authority. It could also provide the real satisfaction that comes from seeing something of value result from the work of one's hands — an outcome that even military service frequently does not offer.

We do not believe that a new C.C.C. should be a prison camp. It should not be available to criminals, of any age. But there are thousands of older boys who are on probation for minor offenses, and thousands more who are drifters, between school and army, with no useful occupation. These are the ones who could be aided in many ways by being given the chance to do worthwhile physical work, at reasonable wages, under healthful conditions, and far from their usual haunts.

The program would be costly, but it would be money spent for constructive purposes, — the conservation of both natural and human resources. It would cost but a fraction of what we spend annually on defense, very little of which is for anything productive. The new C.C.C. might well be a joint enterprise of the state and Federal governments, supported financially by both, but functioning anywhere in the country where the Federal government indicates a need for conservation work.

If enough citizens would rally to Senator Humphrey's banner on this matter, as a civic and non-partisan program, it could make great strides. We earnestly hope that it will.

Upgrading Social Studies Instruction of Adolescents in Secondary Schools

JOHN P. DIX

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Schools, Kansas City, Missouri*

Young adolescents are subjected to the same pressures, anxieties, and insecurities which affect adults in these times. However, their reactions and needs differ from those of adults because their participation in, and understanding of, the social pressures has been limited. Their behavior patterns reflect these limitations and cause them, in many instances, to not be acceptable and understood in comparison to adult standards. The problem of the young adolescent is to achieve responsible, mature status as an adult person. And he must be helped to discover self in meaningful relationships.

The early adolescent must adjust to rapid growth and body change. He desires outlets for self-expression and is concerned about his relationships with people—especially with his peers. The high school youngster tries to achieve independence without losing his security. He strives to develop personal values and he wants to participate as a responsible member of peer groups of which he is a part. And the early and later adolescents want to learn skills and gain additional knowledge which ultimately lead to independence.

Our adolescent learners have more capacities for understanding themselves than many of us give them credit for possessing. They are acquiring ideas and attitudes about themselves and others. But the need to help young people acquire realistic attitudes of self-acceptance is present particularly in early adolescence and at the age and stage of

transition. A greater development in a shorter period of time probably exists in our human self at this level. In searching for self, many of our young people are burdened with feelings of anxiety, inferiority, hostility, defensive attitudes, guilt, self-disparagement, and self-distrust. Often, they are beset with unrealistic concepts, unhealthy attitudes, lack of assurance, hurts, unrealized satisfactions, and great distress and even personality disorganization.

In an emerging pattern, our Social Studies students often love to argue over what may seem to us insignificant things. A few of them want their own way and are determined to get it. Creative and manipulative activities appeal to them. They are great hero worshippers. But there is a tendency to blame others, and to question adult and any authority. Sometimes, there is difficulty in getting along with others. To insure security, our adolescent youth will often resort to childish behavior—even to disturbing behavior.

Adolescents can be appealed to through reasoning and fair play. They want a chance to be useful and accepted and will work hard to gain recognition. But there is a desire to be considered grown up, to be permitted choices of friends, activities, etc. And there is a definite adolescent code of behavior that will respond to idealistic adult and social codes, if democratically approached—*upgrading* in Social Studies teaching includes adolescent psychology.

The adolescents face new situations, consider alternatives, and make what we hope—and can help them think through in problem-solving—wise choices. Thus, meaningful relationships and satisfying responses are essential to help in this transition of the adolescent from childhood into adulthood, to resolve personality adjustments, and to perpetuate social values of usefulness and harmony of development. Our students' backgrounds have created them, relative to their acceptance. Any decision is influenced by past experiences.

Some of our adolescent personalities who do not possess good mental health, who have not developed potentialities, or who have not integrated their experiences of life may have disorganized and warped patterns of development. There is a lack of a unified and satisfying whole; often, there is a hostile streak with such personalities. Such a condition is like a house divided against itself. There is little or no respect for oneself with a resulting disrespect for others. Thus, an adolescent may go to extremes in protecting, vindicating, and defending his disorganized self.

In preserving his selfhood, a person develops many defenses and escape mechanisms, sometimes in avoiding facing truths and sometimes just by words. Our adolescent youth are emerging into maturity and emotional balance when they can think through and face up to life situations which resolve themselves into wise action. They are more comfortable and happy when they face up to themselves, accepting to a necessary degree, the truth that hurts but in the long run heals. Self-acceptance is a necessary condition to mental health and personality adjustment — and to meaningful teaching and learning in the Social Studies in secondary schools.

Emotion, which is very strong at this level, is not limited to disorganized behavior. Emotional maturity means the degree to which our adolescent youth have realized their potentialities for richness of living, capaci-

ties to enjoy things and people, to love wholeheartedly, to laugh, to feel genuine sorrow, to feel anger with thwarting that would rile the temper of sensible persons (righteous indignation), to experience fear without false masks of courage, and to react in a genuine manner.

Emotionalized attitudes and conduct, with sound moral values of living, enter this developmental period of our adolescent youth and in the teaching of Social Studies. Religious supports in a broad approach are needed. Just knowledge and problem-solving won't do. Someone has to care for more than self as he is accepted by peers. Someone has to point up and insist on democratic principles and practices for the general welfare. And that someone can be—and more often is the teacher of Social Studies.

Quiet understanding on the part of the Social Studies teacher in our secondary school goes far in *upgrading* instruction. Respect for personality, more responsibility, consideration for the viewpoints of young people, student activity in thinking or expression, (oral and written) and careful lesson planning and techniques are essential. Mutual respect results from mutual effort and understanding. Everyone wants something to do, something to love, and something to hope for—and our adolescent youth are no exception. Our students need appeal to their interests, their efforts, and their satisfactions. As social beings, they respond to other personalities, love the approval of their fellows, learn to cooperate with others, imitate what they admire, and *respond to the dominant tone and trend of their surroundings*. In our teaching of the Social Studies, we might refer to this basic truth as the emotional and educational climate of the classroom.

The teacher of adolescent youth in the secondary schools of this nation knows that character and learning result from growth from within, that character is a by-product of other experiences, that growth results best from indirect influence (and creative, vitalized teaching and counseling) with no

advertising of intention, and that friendliness is the best key to confidence. We may use four tools: example, doing with, encouragement, and expectancy of good. The same group of adolescent youth may be enrolled with two teachers, even in Social Studies, and behave entirely differently due to a difference between the teacher and classroom climate and preparation in teaching development, enrichment, and effort.

Upgrading instruction necessitates *upgrading* ourselves and our efforts as teachers. We must be sympathetic and understanding of our youngsters. Our attitude should be a wholesome one, cheerful, friendly, kindly, helpful, generous, and consecrated.

Certainly, nothing takes the place of the enthusiasm and efforts of a master teacher in the Social Studies — one who is efficient and dedicated to adolescent youth and the teaching of Social Studies in the United States of America. In-service preparation, effort, and teaching development receive major consideration. Reflective thinking, tolerance, and *clinching* of teaching are pointed up. And it should go without saying — democracy and the democratic way of life are *taught* in contrast with its competitors.

It is possible in the teaching of history to gain an insight into human behavior, showing the psychological content in historical events which often transparently reveal the aspirations and frailties of human beings, their courage or lack of it, their tendency to be governed by greed, fear, hostility, and false pride—and at the same time, *their capacity for generosity and devotion*. The record also shows our great progress toward our ideals and the American Dream of democracy. History, like Economics, provides opportunity for helping our adolescent youth to examine some of their own motives as they identify themselves emotionally with this or that hero or cause, or express their fears or inferiority feelings, or vent their hostilities by proxy upon historical events and characters.

Most of what comes under the name of Social Studies might contribute directly or

indirectly to a learner's understanding of human problems and motives, including his own. It is an easy step from a consideration of Economics to an inquiry into human values, needs, and aspirations, and yet competitive tendencies involved in economic affairs. It is possible to inquire how learners project their own self-revealing attitudes into economic attitudes.

Certainly, the teacher of Social Studies in the secondary schools should help point up and *clinch* through reflective thinking and development the nature of our life and government together in the local, state, national, and international areas. By increased understanding based on our learnings in Social Studies, we can better understand and appreciate values in living in the culture in which we find ourselves. Human relations may be furthered. To understand the present, we look at the past, and possibly project ourselves into a better future.

Social Studies teachers desire to stress certain skills, attitudes, and understandings that are in line with the development of adolescent youth toward their transition into adulthood and into citizenship in the American Republic.

To do this, we realize that we must use problem-solving and socialized techniques (with teacher as leader, if desired) that are in harmony with adolescent development. There is probably no one method that will be used to the exclusion of all others. There is a place for the teacher to point up, develop, *clinch*, and evaluate with his students. There is a place for creative, enriched, vitalized teaching by the teacher of Social Studies. Class organization may be set up with elected officers for regular responsibilities for participation in the daily development, class activities, and projects. Some of these activities and projects might include discussion of current events, controversial issues, debates, panels, and dramatizations. Students should be given some chance to follow through. A superior, *upgraded* Social Studies class should have a daily sharing in getting things done toward better learning in line with the

nature of Social Studies development and the adolescents whom we are *upgrading* and strengthening and improving toward better citizenship. Presidents can lead culminating group discussions. Secretaries can help check roll. Projectionists can help operate the projector on film development. Others can share in helping to write on the board, pass out papers, keep displays on the bulletin board, follow through on responsibilities in development.

These sharings and responsibilities do not mean that the teacher does not teach, nor does it mean necessarily that he does not direct things. It is the spirit of doing things together, sharing in some decisions, selling what happens, and achieving learnings and satisfying things together. Certainly, Social Studies students in a secondary school should feel that it is their class; and assert approval of worthwhile things, and disapproval of unsocial things—and people. This procedure could even educate the teacher, at times.

Critical thinking is developed in Social Studies if one follows through as indicated above. Cause and effect relationships, suspended judgment, controversial issues and alternatives, interpretation of historical developments and events, thinking through problems to a sound conclusion, and a *clinching* of facts are essential in an *upgrading* of Social Studies instruction in secondary schools. A word of caution is needed here. Young people need the direction and the guidance of a master teacher in this area—a teacher who is not prejudiced, who does not generalize or allow mere “buzz buzz sessions” or stereotyping of events, happenings, or people of the present or of the past. Recognition of propaganda and its devices receives emphasis. And above all, there needs to be mutual respect on the part of adolescent youth and teachers in the Social Studies. The use of a single textbook and a teacher-director development can be successful, if supplemented by vitalized, enriched, creative teaching, and superior materials and functional activities.

Certainly, we look for and expect a healthy

esprit de corps and morale in any group of learners. Relationships and attitudes toward each other and the teacher must be emotionally right in any *upgraded* instruction in the Social Studies at the secondary level. There should be socialization, give-and-take without bickering. Development should be based on reflective thinking and intellectual humility. Our Social Studies teaching can and should instruct adolescents to think straight, tolerantly, and soundly toward a tentative conclusion. There has been too much negative in this area—a superior Social Studies teacher can do no less than point up and *clinch* in writing on the board, in student notes, or by underlining democratic facts, attitudes, and understandings.

Democratic approaches can be pointed up by example and direction. The record will stand a positive approach as to what is right about us, our institutions, our way of life, our achievements, and our people. The negative approach only in the name of objectivity or the scientific method isn't broad enough in a truly reflective thinking development. Materials, techniques of teaching, and organization (with better articulation and upgrading and downgrading in Social Studies in elementary, junior, and senior high schools) are all essential and basic. But the human relations must be right. The Social Studies teacher must understand adolescents, love young people, reflect a wholesome and positive personality, and do a dedicated job of teaching every day with his learners.

There are some people who feel that the answer to *upgrading* the Social Studies in secondary schools is in scholarship. Others say it is in techniques of teaching. There are still others who want the answer in the curriculum and in the organization of the secondary schools into junior and senior high schools, cores, and other programs. We would say that the answer is in all of these. But we would also say in the same breath that *upgrading* Social Studies instruction in the secondary schools rests mainly with the teacher whom we have been describing and many of whom we have met and observed

in action. They have had—and are continuing to have—a part in the shaping of America.

Evaluation includes facts learned, attitudes influenced, skills acquired, and understandings developed. Adolescents in the Social Studies move toward better, more useful citizenship in the American Republic. And they recognize that American principles and practices include not only "life, liberty, and the *pursuit* of happiness" but also our pledge of "our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor" in order to perpetuate our country. Controlled freedom is essential. That does not mean freedom imposed from without in an authoritarian manner, nor does it mean *laissez faire* or individual license and anarchy. And through such development and understanding comes greater appreciation for our great people and for our great Republic. Otherwise *upgrading* has not been present, in our opinion.

Under techniques and materials, we have noted and shared in some general observations of some Social Studies rooms with bulletin board displays, charts, maps, pictures, posters, cartoons, clippings — attractive and up-to-date.

We have noted some Social Studies rooms with libraries, sets of books, pamphlets, current event and newspapers, magazines, models, replicas of Constitution, etc.

We have noted some Social Studies rooms with dark shades and available projectors, and modern desks and equipment.

We have noted some of the following approaches and readiness pitches:

Reflective thinking on current happenings, including developments.

Guidance in civic attitudes, personal and community problems, social understandings, and appreciations.

Developing the nature of freedom with corresponding responsibilities.

Excellent rapport, esprit de corps, morale, give-and-take in discussion and development.

Vitalized and creative approaches, well-planned, well-developed, and well-clinched toward a conclusion.

Special materials and techniques for students of lower mental ability.

Special materials and techniques for students of superior mental ability.

Motivation and visual development in the use of

displays, films, panels, and recordings.

Development of the U. N., culminating in a school assembly.

Grading based definitely on what students do in discussion, homework, written work, organization, testing, and extra credit reports, panels, and activities. Students' work graded and returned.

The "Red Lesson" development including a readiness introduction to interest and pointing up topics, vitalized and enriched discussion of 8 or 10 pivotal and thought-provoking questions and facts, use of clinchers such as charts, maps, underlined text material, outlines, class notes, leading to summary of development and assignment in study review and advanced work. Participation of one-half to three-fourths of the students is present during the class period. Illustrations, examples, and applications are pointed up. "Soaring" is avoided.

Assignments appear in notes or on board—definitely indicated for daily and longer time follow through. Written work is usually handed in for grading every week or two. Written work includes developmental and critical thinking—not mere busy work, plus extra credit for superior marking.

Teaching units, assignments, and development are on schedule pointing toward the *completion* of the course as of June 1959. Roll is taken from seating chart, everything moves with dispatch, organization and planning get across achievement.

Vocabulary building, emphasis on reading in the Social Studies.

Providing clear and definite assignments, either on the board or in mimeographed form as study or assignment sheets.

Using check-up of discussion or development at the beginning or at the end of lesson development.

Limited use of *directed* study period and development.

Use of workbooks only as a means toward an end with some lower classes in busy work activities.

Enthusiastic teaching development, enrichment techniques, and well-scheduled lesson discussion toward minimum essentials in facts, vocabulary, and conclusions. (Big Ideas, General Lessons Pointed Up, Contributions of Civilizations, Causes and Results of History, etc.)

There has never been a greater need for a realistic and vitalized approach to the teaching of the Social Studies in the secondary schools. There is a need for ingenuity on the part of the teacher. And there is a need for a Social Studies laboratory based on usefulness and practicality, consisting of equipment and conference room, adequate maps and charts, atlases, books, pamphlets, yearbooks, encyclopedias, newspapers, magazines, reference materials, etc. The role of the superintendent and principal is one of encouragement and financial support in the budget for Social Studies materials. But the Social Studies teachers in the secondary schools should display leadership requesting and even demanding adequate equipment, materials and supplies for *upgrading* instruction.

The Vice Presidency of the United States

THAIS M. PLAISTED

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The Vice Presidency of the United States of America today is a far cry from that office as created by the Constitutional Convention of 1787. Originating therein as almost a superfluous position, its prestige during the nineteenth century suffered a vicissitude of mutations. This ended in 1900 due to the evolving at that time of a new and more virile concept of the Vice Presidential post as a crucial job.

The Framing Fathers thought of the Vice Presidency as a preparation for the Presidency. In addition, they intended it to be not only a dignified but also a secondary position to that of the Chief Executive. Like him, according to Article II of the Constitution of the United States of America, its incumbent was to be chosen by the indirect vote of the people through the Electoral College as his runner-up. Furthermore, they expected him to be in line for the Presidential place at the next election as well as to have the responsibilities of the President devolve upon him in case that officer was removed by impeachment, death, resignation or inability.

So that the Vice President would have something to do, one of the Deputies to the 1787 Convention proposed that he should be given the Constitutional duty of being President or presiding officer over the Senate. As such he discovered that he was not a member but an outsider in that august body. His only function there was to cast the vote that would make or break a tie, a power that

dwindled as the Senate grew larger. For this he receives a salary today of \$35,000 per year, plus an additional \$10,000 for expenses, all of which is taxable.

Thus this consolation prize of second choice by the Electoral College was established originally as a position unique for its almost entire lack of functions. But it was a necessary place, so as not to leave the Presidential office vacant while new electors could be chosen to act. Hence, its occupant had to be elected in the same way and for the same term of four years, even being limited in 1951 through Amendment XXII to the Constitution to holding the office of or acting as President for no more than two terms or for only one if he has served more than two years of his predecessor's presidential term.

The Vice President, therefore, was made to have the same qualifications as the Chief Executive in case he might succeed to that position. In other words, he was to be a natural-born citizen of the United States, at least thirty-five years of age, having legal residence in this country for fourteen years. He also was required to take the same oath of office and, today, is inaugurated on the same day. Amendment XX of 1933 made these ceremonies take place on January 20th instead of March 4th as originally set by Congress.

The Electoral College was intended by the Fathers of the Constitution to remove the selection of the two highest Federal officials

from the masses. Thus these electors, chosen by each state in the manner of its own choosing, and equal in number to the Senators and Representatives in Congress, each had two votes according to constitutional provision. These, they were instructed to cast on a day appointed by Congress with the specification that one vote must be for a person outside each elector's own state. In these two choices the electors were to employ their own judgment as to their preference of the best qualified nominees. In case of a tie for the Presidency, the House of Representatives was to make the decision, but if such a happening occurred in regard to the second choice or Vice President, the selection was to be made by the Senate.

Under this electoral mould four elections were held between the years 1789 and 1801. During this period two Vice Presidents, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, were elected, who, in turn, succeeded to the Presidency through their own election to that office. However, John Adams, in his presidential term, reversed the attitude followed by George Washington, which was that the two highest Federal executive officials should have similar governmental views.

It was the election of 1801 that proved the exception, however, to the rule that the Vice President should be elected the next president. In that year there was a tie in the Electoral College between Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. The choice, therefore, fell to the House of Representatives, which, under the influence of Alexander Hamilton, a bitter foe of Burr, chose Jefferson President. Thus Burr was left with the office of second choice, the Vice Presidency. As a consequence, the previous ill feeling between Burr and Hamilton was ignited into the Weehawken Duel, in which the latter was killed. Burr, after completing his four years as Vice President, became involved in a Mississippi Valley Conspiracy from which he was able to extricate himself only with great difficulty and legal maneuvering.

At first, the Presidential and Vice Presidential nominees were selected with a view

of securing votes from some doubtful state or for geographical or political reasons. Originally this was done by the state legislatures choosing those electors who they knew were in favor of those candidates. However, after 1792, when political parties began to be well defined, the electors became merely honorary mechanical robots, voting the previously made dictates of their party. Gradually the choice of electors was transferred from the legislatures to the voters in each state. Today all state electoral quotas are elected on a general state-wide ticket at the polls, the names of the electors being merely incidental to the political party's Presidential and Vice Presidential candidates chosen at the political party convention held during the summer prior to the Presidential election.

Amendment XII, adopted in 1804, prevented another such unfortunate occurrence as the Hamilton-Burr feud. For it provided that the President and Vice President should be elected separately. Henceforth, like the Chief Executive, this second officer was to be elected by those electors chosen in the various states on the Tuesday following the first Monday in November in every year divisible by four. These electors, in turn, providing that all the returns from them had been received by the state election boards, were to assemble at places designated by their respective state legislatures, usually the state capitals, on the first Monday after the second Wednesday in December. There they were to cast their ballots, each having been signed and sealed by the individual electors. The ballots were to be sent registered to the President of the Senate, namely, the Vice President of the United States. He, on the next January 6th, unless another day had been appointed by law, in the presence of both Houses of Congress, was to count the ballots, and declare the previously designated candidates who had received the majority of electoral votes, elected.

If no ticket for presidential and vice presidential candidates was found to have a majority of the electoral votes, from the three

leading candidates the House of Representatives was to choose the President, and the Senate the Vice President, each member casting but one vote. If no President has been selected by the following January 20th, the newly elected Vice President is to be inaugurated as President. However, due to the fact that the component unanimous unit electoral vote disregards whether or not a large or small minority has been discarded, it may differ greatly from the actual popular one. Thus the candidates receiving the popular vote may not be elected. This was what happened in 1888 when the Republican nominees, Benjamin Harrison and James B. Blaine, won over the Democrats, Grover Cleveland and Alan G. Thurman; and in 1916 when the Democratic running mates, Woodrow Wilson and Thomas R. Marshall, gained the political victory over the Republicans, Charles Evans Hughes and Charles W. Fairbanks.

It was during the nineteenth century that the Vice Presidency suffered much in retrogressive diminution of its powers from the Constitutional conception. This was in marked contrast to the ever increasing development of the executive, legislative and judicial duties of the President. For during these hundred years the Vice President was almost the forgotten man.

From 1805 to 1825 there was a definite decline in the Vice Presidency. This was due not only to the functioning of Amendment XII, but also to the rise of political parties, platforms and conventions with their attendant custom of nominations and elections. During these years this second office of the land became merely the seat of those ambitious beyond their talents or for a reward for those passed beyond their days of political usefulness. Such Vice Presidents were George Clinton, Elbridge Gerry and Daniel D. Tompkins, all good men in their day, but their prime was past.

This second important executive post recovered much of its prestige from 1825 to 1845. This was because most of its incumbents were of the caliber who could have

been or were later elected President, or did succeed to that office upon the death of the Chief Executive. These Vice Presidents were John C. Calhoun, Martin Van Buren, Richard M. Johnson and John Tyler. Calhoun and Tyler were considered presidential timber even during their Vice Presidencies, while Van Buren was actually elected to the Presidency following his holding of the office of Vice President.

Tyler was the first Vice President to hold the office of President by filling the unexpired term of the President William Henry Harrison, who died just one month after his inauguration in 1841. This posed a question whether Tyler was President or merely acting as that officer. This was because Article II, Section 1, of the Constitution says that "... the same shall devolve upon the Vice President . . .", while Article III states that the Vice President "... shall act as President. . . ." This ambiguity in texts was not clarified until the passage of Amendment XXII which reads that the Vice President "... shall hold the office of President . . ." This was in 1951 in the administration of Harry B. Truman who succeeded to the Presidency upon the death of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

The third period from 1845 to 1865 was a critical one for the Vice Presidency. Reversing the attitude of the previous two decades this office was looked upon now as a post in which the occupant was not to be tested as presidential material. Rather this second office was considered an inferior dead-end position, an afterthought of the National Political Party Convention, whose incumbent might be able to retrieve, temporarily at least, political and sectional intra-party losses caused by clique discussions and divisions. Such were George M. Dallas, Millard Fillmore, William R. King, John C. Breckinridge, Hannibal Hamlin, and Andrew Johnson. None, except Fillmore and Johnson, ever succeeded to the Presidency, and then only through the accident of presidential death.

One of these, President Johnson, attempted to remove Edwin H. Stanton, the Secretary

of War, appointed by his predecessor in the White House, Abraham Lincoln. As a consequence, he became involved in a contest with the Senate as to whether he, who could only appoint with its ratification, could remove without its approval. Nevertheless, Johnson removed Stanton over that body's objection. In turn, Johnson was impeached, being found not guilty by one vote. However, Johnson's action was justified later according to decisions handed down in the cases of *Meyers versus the United States* in 1926 and *Humphrey's Executor versus the Federal Trade Commissioner* in 1935 which permit the Chief Executive to remove without the Senate's approval.

The Vice Presidential incumbents from 1869 to 1899 are little remembered. For this post was no longer looked upon as a position for the second best man of the political party. To the contrary, it became the berth for him who was not even considered for the Presidency. The Vice Presidents of this era were: Schuyler Colfax, Henry Wilson, William A. Wheeler, Chester A. Arthur, Thomas C. Hendricks, Levi P. Morton, Adlai E. Stevenson, Garret C. Hobart. Three of these died in office: Wilson, Hendricks and Hobart. Arthur succeeded to the Presidency after the death by assassination of President James G. Garfield in December, 1881. However, he, himself, could not win even a presidential nomination of his own.

With the turn of the twentieth century there was brought forth a more forceful concept of the Vice Presidency. After the death of Hobart in November, 1899, all eyes were turned to see who would be the new running mate of President William McKinley in the campaign of 1900. He turned out to be Theodore Roosevelt, who, instead of becoming, as was the wont of the nineteenth century, obliterated in that office, through his action, color and popularity, used it as a stepping stone to transform that post to one of great governmental glamor and value. In this he has been followed, for the most part, by eleven like-minded Vice Presidents. They have been: Charles W. Fairbanks, James S.

Sherman, Thomas R. Marshall, Calvin Coolidge, Charles G. Dawes, Charles Curtis, John N. Garner, Henry A. Wallace, Harry S. Truman, Alben W. Barkley and Richard M. Nixon. Three of these (Theodore Roosevelt, Coolidge and Truman) not only succeeded to the Presidency: each also was elected to his own term in office.

Like Washington, Theodore Roosevelt, who succeeded to the Presidency in 1901 through the assassination of William McKinley, believed that the President and Vice President should have the same views and principles. Those Vice Presidents who also had this viewpoint during these transition years of the turn of the century were Fairbanks, Sherman and Marshall. However, President Wilson looked askance upon Vice President Marshall's presiding over the Cabinet Meetings while he was abroad at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919.

But the following decade found the United States in quite a different frame of mind. The Progressive Republican Americanism of Teddy Roosevelt and the Democratic League of Nations attitude of Woodrow Wilson were gone. Normalcy was the pattern, and its spokesman was President Warren G. Harding.

It was he who first brought his running mate, Calvin Coolidge, into the Federal councils. He felt that his Vice President, the former Governor of Massachusetts, had much to contribute from his executive experience. He also believed that the Vice Presidency should be utilized as the contacting agency between the Cabinet and Congress. Hence, on December 17, 1922, he cordially invited Coolidge to sit with the members of the Cabinet, following this with a formal invitation on the next March 7th. And so a new policy was introduced in regard to the Vice Presidency by Coolidge's taking his seat at the foot of the table.

But "Silent Cal" was mostly an auditor during the years he irregularly attended Harding's Cabinet meetings, only answering definite questions addressed to him. On the other hand, although cognizant of it, he never

was asked to Harding's Inner or Poker Cabinet from Ohio. Nevertheless, in 1924, having become the sixth successor through death in the presidency, he returned this favor, when he, in turn was elected President, by asking his Vice President, Charles G. Dawes, a former member of that junto, to sit in his Cabinet meetings. Dawes, chosen for that office, due to political availability and geographical expediency, discreetly declined.

Herbert Hoover, too, asked his Vice President, Charles Curtis, to do so, but the latter did not avail himself of this opportunity. Rumor had it that the reason for this was because there was none too cordial a relationship between the two men. This, it was said, was because Curtis had opposed Hoover's 1929 nomination to the Presidency.

It was President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, however, who really started the Vice Presidency on its climb to its present position. He believed that a Vice President should be helpful to an administration in four ways: as a member of the Cabinet; as an executive aide to the Chief Executive; as a policy maker in matters where no particular Cabinet member had jurisdiction; and as a liaison interpreter of policy between Congress and the public.

In other words, the Vice President should not be tied down to a desk. Rather, he should be a roving expeditor, who, after studying overlapping departmental situations, should report on their disposition. This, in the long run would bring about, it was thought, better relations between Congress and the White House. In addition, better qualified men would be attracted to the Vice Presidency.

In 1933 F.D.R. began to activate these views. He gave John Nance Garner and Henry Agard Wallace key positions in his inner circle. The former ended by becoming a Roosevelt obstructionist. However, the latter was able to demonstrate capabilities in supra departmental and policy-making affairs.

In keeping with this, Executive Order #8839 started the new era. This executive decree made the Vice President Chairman

of the Economic Welfare Board. In this Chairmanship he was permitted to advise and assist its members to make decisions in regard to important matters coming before this Board. This was quite a departure from being limited to merely ceremonial occasions as the Vice President had been previously. Instead Wallace became an administrative officer with contact in some way or another with every Cabinet member and important independent agency head. Nevertheless, it should be advised that this elevation of the Vice Presidency had no connection with the failure of the Economic Welfare Board. This was due to the deficiencies and radical ideologies of its incumbent at that time, namely, Mr. Wallace.

With the Missouri Compromise of 1944 Harry S. Truman was chosen running mate for Franklin Delano Roosevelt for his fourth term as President. The United States Senator from Missouri was geared for this office, having been head of the Senate War Investigating Committee for some fifty months from March 1, 1941 to August 1, 1944. Moreover, like his predecessors who had been Senators, Truman felt that his place was in the Senate until he took his oath of office as Vice President.

After his election to that office his experience proved of no avail since F.D.R. spent little more than a month of his final term in Washington, D. C. As a result there were few Cabinet meetings. However, Roosevelt did hold one on the eve of his fourth Inaugural which was exactly three days prior to his departure for Yalta. At this meeting he informed that body's members that he was willing for them to meet under whosoever was ranking officer at the time of their convening. He further told them that, unlike Wilson, he would permit them to come together whenever there was business to transact.

In 1945 Vice President Truman was admitted, without portfolio, to the Cabinet as its junior member. As such he was merely an ex officio officer thereon, and that by presidential courtesy. This was in contradic-

tion to the fact that constitutionally he was outranked only by the President.

Like Marshall and Garner, Truman doubted the value of such meetings for him. This was because Roosevelt discussed affairs in private, seldom talking over important matters in Cabinet meetings. Nevertheless, during his short Vice Presidency, Truman managed to make two innovations in that office: they were the appointment of a military aide in the person of the ill-fated Harry S. Vaughan, and the commandeering of a bomber to take him to the funeral of the notorious Tom Pendergast of Kansas City.

Then, for the third time in the twentieth century the Presidency was vacated through death. As a result Truman became President. In 1948 he was elected to that high office in his own right.

His Vice President, the thirty-fifth in the history of the United States, was the Kentucky lawyer born of a tenant tobacco farmer, William Alben Barkley. He was seventy-one years of age when he was inaugurated. Affectionately known as "Veep," he popularized the office, his age notwithstanding.

His tenure as such was marked by the fact that he became, by the Congressional Act of August 10, 1949, the first Vice President to sit on the National Security Council. This statutory membership made him a legal participant. No longer did he have to sit as a courtesy officer.

This post, previously outside his province, the Vice President holds to this day. This has given him valuable executive experience as instanced in his being able to sit in on the Korean Crisis in 1950 and the recall of Douglas MacArthur the following year. For the National Security Council is a sort of super Cabinet presided over by the President. It has legal charge over national security through its ability to integrate domestic and foreign policies.

Vice Presidential Cabinet activity reached its zenith in President Dwight D. Eisenhower's administration. For Eisenhower made this second officer of the land actually the second most important person in the

Executive Branch of the United States. The recipient of all this honor was the forty-year-old Quaker-lawyer-sailor from California, Richard M. Nixon, elected to that office in 1952.

In the Vice Presidency Nixon has had more responsibilities and powers than any of his predecessors. His duties have been manifold because he has had assigned to him not only the regular executive obligations that F.D.R. had placed upon Wallace a decade previous, but also he has had many other domestic and international ones as well. This has familiarized the Vice President not only with the Executive Department, but also it has given his office stature both at home and abroad.

Thus in every way President Eisenhower has shown regard for the Vice Presidency. Constantly he has emphasized this through innovations. He established the rule that Cabinet meetings should be held as scheduled whether he was in attendance or not. If he was not present then the Vice President, rather than as formerly the Secretary of State, was to preside. He also provided, that under similar circumstances, Mr. Nixon should take the Chair in that most powerful executive policy-forming board, The National Security Council, wherein, also in the absence of the Chief Executive, the Secretary of State had formerly held full sway. And, even when Nixon did not preside, the President was most careful to permit him to throw great weight in the deliberations of these two bodies. In this way the Vice Presidency has become not only the second most important post in the Executive Branch of the Federal Government, but also the Vice President has become the President's Chief of Staff and his heir-apparent to the Presidency.

Hence as Vice President, Richard Nixon, still in his forties, has been able to explain the workings of Capitol Hill to beginners in the White House. He has acted as the presidential trouble shooter between Congress and ruffled business officials who were unlearned in conventional liaison channels. He

has had the authority to do this because Eisenhower had him appointed Chairman of the President's Committee on Government Contracts. Also in the Republican Political Campaign in 1956 the Chief Executive had the Vice President concentrate on the four "K's": Korea, Communism, Controls and Corruption. This Nixon did with his usual strategy.

Besides, the President has sent Nixon abroad as an American Good Will Ambassador. For example in 1953 he went to the Far East. In 1955 he made two such trips to Latin America and the Caribbean Nations. A year later he was sent as Eisenhower's representative to the inauguration of the new President of Brazil. In May 1958 during a Central and South American tour, Nixon's ableness was displayed through the delicate, responsible, mature way he handled his misadventures there.

Richard M. Nixon was the first Vice President permitted to see a President during a medical crisis. This occurred on October 8, 1955 after Eisenhower had been seized with a moderate attack of coronary thrombosis at 2:00 P.M. on that memorable September 24th of that year. Previous to the Vice President's visit, Eisenhower, during this initial period of his recovery, had been allowed to see only his Press Secretary, James C. Hagerty, and the Presidential Assistant, Sherman Adams. Of course, Mamie Eisenhower, his wife, was constantly with "Ike," as had been true in similar cases of Garfield and Wilson.

During this so-termed interregnum of the President, Nixon unostentatiously, but firmly and efficiently, assumed presidential duties such as presiding over the Cabinet and National Security Council Meetings. During this time he ever remained within overnight distance from the National Capitol.

Eisenhower's heart attack pointed up acutely a problem, long smoldering in our national governmental structure. It was one that had occurred four times since the establishment of the Republic. James A. Garfield had lingered on until September 19th after

being shot on July 2, 1881. During those eleven weeks he was able to perform only one official act: the signing of an extradition paper.

After Woodrow Wilson suffered the stroke on October 2, 1919, he lay semi-conscious for seven months. During this time his second wife, Edith Galt Wilson, assumed the presidential powers. It was during this period that Robert Lansing was fired for calling a Cabinet Meeting. As a consequence Marshall did not care to presume upon this prerogative.

The poor health of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, too, posed quite a problem. This became pronounced after his fourth election to the Presidency. However, his death on April 12, 1945, just a few months after his last inauguration, removed any need for a legal solution to that particular case in point.

Eisenhower's recovery took sixteen weeks. But during this time he was able to confer in the hospital with Nixon, his Cabinet members, and his personal staff. During those first days of the President's illness, the Vice President carried on under the previous order of the President in regard to presiding over the Cabinet in case of his absence. He did so on September 30, 1955, and whenever necessary thereafter both in that body and the National Security Council. Then came President Eisenhower's attack of *ileitis* in June 1956 from which he was disabled physically but not mentally. Nevertheless, it took him about twenty-two weeks to recover fully from this.

This again brought into sharp focus the question of the possibility, if not at this time, at least at some future time, of the disability of a President while in office. Immediately, there was concern over what changes should be made to ameliorate such a condition. It was found that the Constitution would have to be amended in this regard, according to constitutional authorities, because the Framers of the Constitution had postponed indefinitely without discussion or definition the question of Presidential disability.

Inability so far as a United States President is concerned may have several mean-

ings. It may denote capture by an enemy. Again it may signify being temporarily, partially or permanently mentally and/or physically, disabled.

The Sub-Committee of the House of Representatives Judiciary Committee held hearings on this matter April 11 and 12, 1956. However, nothing ever came of them. Then on November 25, 1957 President Eisenhower, for a third time in his administration, fell ill, this time from a minor occlusion. Although this did not incapacitate him, it did re-emphasize that there was no constitutional answer for the functioning of the office of the President, in case of the disability of its incumbent.

Many solutions were pressed forward. Among them was a bill providing that Congress, representing the people of the United States, should have a legislative voice in such a solution. The advocates of this based it on expediency. They claimed a constitutional amendment would take too long, and the emergency of Presidential disability could not be met. On the other hand, the United States Attorney General, William P. Rogers, urged President Eisenhower to veto such an act if carried by Congress, stating that this was the concern of the Executive Branch of the Government alone. In his opinion, he further said that the power of selection in such an instance could not be transferred by law to any one outside of the executive department.

In regard to this the Supreme Court also went on record as wanting no part in the presidential choice in case of the disability of the Chief Executive. This, no doubt, was a most wise decision. For, in the long run, that Court would have to decree upon the validity of such a law or amendment.

At present it is a mooted point as to how to proceed in regard to presidential disability. Some authorities desire the selection of a new president. Others think that the Vice President should act as the *ad interim* Chief Executive. Some even go so far as to say that an Acting President should be paid at the Presidential rate. On the other hand, it is

the opinion of still others that the disabled President should retain his entire monetary allotment, not just a percentage thereof.

No one seems to agree whether the incapacitated President should declare his own disability or not. Some believe that this should be done rather by a Cabinet or Congressional Committee, by a joint resolution of Congress, or even by a court decision. But this leads to the conjecture of how the President, if his disability is only temporary, may resume his responsibilities, and also if this would relegate the Vice President to his original elected office, that of the second post of the land.

In regard to these unsolved circumstances, it is the consensus of American legal opinion that all such provisions for Presidential disability will have to be solved by constitutional amendment. Some of these were mitigated in 1933 by the passage of Amendment XX. This provided that Congress, by law may determine from whom the House of Representatives and Senate may select a President or Vice President, respectively. It also established that, if at any time fixed for the beginning of the Presidential term, the President elect shall have died, the Vice President elect shall become President. Then, too, if a President elect shall not have been chosen President before the time set for the commencement of his term or if the President elect shall have failed to qualify, then the Vice President shall act as President until a President shall have been qualified. It further provided for the case where neither a President elect or Vice President elect shall have qualified. In such an instance Congress may pass a law declaring who shall be selected, this person acting as Chief Executive until a President or Vice President shall have qualified.

Following the adoption of this amendment, Congress passed the Presidential Act of 1947, which superseded the one of 1886. This 1947 law provided that in case of the death, resignation or disqualification of both the President and Vice President, there should be a set rule for procedure to the office of the

Presidency. This order is as follows: the Speaker of the House of Representatives, the President *Pro Tempore* of the Senate, the Secretaries of State, Treasury, and Defense, the Attorney and Postmaster Generals, the Secretaries of Interior, Agriculture, Commerce and Labor. Fortunately in the past no President has ever resigned, died, been impeached or disqualified, or has become incapacitated in office at a time when the Vice Presidency has been vacant.

As a remedy, in part at least, there was introduced in the Senate on March 4, 1958, a Constitutional Amendment empowering the Vice President to act as President during the latter's disability. Such would require the approval of a majority of the Cabinet, permitting the Chief Executive to reclaim the first office of the land after due notice. However, if the Vice President and majority of the Cabinet, at such a time of reclaiming, should believe that the President was unable to resume his executive duties, the Vice President, by a two thirds vote of those present in both the Senate and House of Representatives, would retain his position as Acting President. He would so act until he, himself, declared the Presidential disability ended or a majority of those present in both Houses of Congress, sitting separately, should declare such disability terminated. Thus a two thirds vote of Congress would be necessary for the Vice President to overrule the President, but only a majority would be needed to restore the President to his presidential powers.

This amendment is only in its initial stage and is far from becoming part of the Constitutional law of our land. Nevertheless, it does have much that is similar to the Eisenhower proposal to Congress in 1957. Therein the Chief Executive set forth three provisions. They were that: the President should notify the Vice President if he wished to be temporarily relieved; if the President were unable or unwilling to do this, a majority of the Cabinet should be permitted to decide; the President should determine the end of his own disability.

Such also were the underlying principles

of the secret personal Eisenhower-Nixon Agreement pointed up at the Wednesday News Conference of the President on February 26, 1958, just prior to the Chief Executive's molar extraction from which he made a quick recovery. On the other hand, the proposed Constitutional Amendment does differ in some respects from the above, in that the President could reclaim the Presidential post after due notice had been given. Another dissimilarity is that Congress is designated as the body to clarify the exact point of the termination of the Presidential disability and the resumption of Presidential responsibilities.

There is some objection in having the Chief Executive declare his own disability. This is because the President may be unable physically or mentally or even unwilling to do so. We have never experienced the latter condition, but it is one which could happen. However, the former is a part of American History in the cases of Presidents Garfield and Wilson.

Some disagree with the amendment on the ground that Cabinet loyalty might prevent its members making an objective decision. But others feel that it is a sound idea because the membership of the President's Cabinet have an intimate knowledge of the President's health. Whatever the case, there is no doubt that provision for Presidential disability can best be made upon advice of the Cabinet through constitutional amendment. And furthermore, the Vice President might well be empowered to notify Congress as to the Presidential capability of his resumption of his Executive duties.

In addition to all this, the second position in the United States is ill equipped to perform its functions due to certain tangible deficiencies. The Vice President has insufficient office space, staff and remuneration. He has no official residence wherein he may properly entertain according to the official standard his station demands. In fact he is so much the forgotten man in these mundane matters, that something really should be done about it.

Certain grave weaknesses in the structure of the Vice Presidency should and must be corrected. The most critical of these is in the operation of the Executive Department itself. The President is overburdened. He needs to employ the Vice President in a three-fold capacity: as an advisor, confidant, and active administrator.

On the other hand, the Vice President requires the President even more. For only with the Chief Executive may he fully make use of his energy and talent. Thus, may he realize the prestige due his office.

The potential of interdependence of these two top Federal officers has long existed. The Constitution itself provided this Assistant for the President within his own department. All of the other presidential executive and administrative associates hold posts that rest either directly or indirectly on statutory bases. Therefore their capacity to relieve the ever-increasing domestic and international burdens of the Chief Executive in this complex universe of today is much restricted.

Then, too, the sheer work of the President is coupled with an overwhelming responsibility in foreign and interstate policy making which operates every minute of the day and night. This, which is concentrated in the Executive Department, cannot be divided with the two other departments, namely the legislative and judicial. Such a division would only create confusion. Even with all the additional duties taken over by the Vice President, the Chief Executive is still overworked.

This is because the Vice President has no Constitutional standing similar to that of the President. In other words, the second officer of our land has really no executive role to play in our national government. He may go to the White House only upon the invitation of the President. He has no connection whatsoever with the judiciary. In the Senate he is merely an outsider, voting only in case of a tie.

To alter the duties of the Vice President fundamental changes are necessary. He, by

statute, should be made part of the Presidential Staff, instead of being confined, as at present, to consultation and ceremonial occasions. In so doing the unity of the executive must not be impaired. This may be brought about by keeping this advisory function of the Vice President within the executive orbit. Thus he will be permitted authority only for executive action. For it must be remembered that constitutionally the Vice President is an independent officer, not responsible or subordinate to the President.

There is a suggestion that through amendment, it might be well to separate the Vice President from the Senate Chamber. This legislative wrench will not mean much to that officer as he seldom exercises this prerogative of presiding over that body. He most generally prefers leaving that matter to the President *Pro Tempore* elected by the majority party in that House. In fact on fifteen different occasions during administrations in the past the United States has lacked a Vice President. If his power of making or breaking ties is considered necessary to him, provision could be made, even if he did not assume the Chair, to retain this vote.

For, if the Vice President could be divorced from this weak Senatorial Chair he could enlarge his functions as a liaison officer between the Executive and Legislative Departments. If he were permitted the privilege of the floor of Congress, some think that he could be able to aid the President in explaining his legislative program to that body. Moreover, he should exercise this power, if it be given him, only subject to Presidential review and approval, just as his administrative acts should be limited by the Chief Executive's veto.

The Presidential Assistant has been of great help in relieving the President's governmental burdens, although some are of the contrary opinion. For there are those who look askance at this innovation, although former President Hoover holds much in its favor. This fear may or may not stem from the days of the Frankish Kingdom in the Sixth Century

when the *Major Domus* made his office finally more powerful than that of the King.

If the Vice Presidential job could be enhanced through these additional legislative and executive duties, its incumbent could be made the official second man in the administration. Hence, if for any reason he had to take over the Presidential duties temporarily or permanently, the Vice President would have a better understanding of that post.

The office of the Vice Presidency is still evolving, attracting to it better qualified men with every administration. We are going forward governmentally in the right direction.

The unity of the executive department as provided for in the Constitution is being preserved. Furthermore increasing harmony continually is being established between the President and the Vice President.

Two World Wars and the Vatican

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Before beginning to compare the roles of Benedict XV and Pius XII in the two world wars, a few general remarks are necessary in order to define the limitations of Vatican policy. The Vatican, as representative of international Catholicism, cannot officially champion one belligerent against another. Millions of adherents are found on both sides. If it should declare for one side, it would force its constituents on the other to choose between loyalty to one's country and loyalty to one's religion. That is a dilemma that the Church is too wise to pose in an age of violent nationalism. It is doubtful if the Vatican will ever again dare to revive the challenge of Canossa. If it does retaliate against a powerful political sovereignty, — the way it has recently proscribed communism at the point of excommunication, — it is because it has been driven to make that threat by the aggressive actions of an uncompromising enemy.

The Vatican cultivates a traditional impartiality in time of war in order to serve as a referee in good faith, ready to hear both

sides of the argument, and act as a sounding board for such overtures as may lead to an armistice. That is the professed thesis of the Church. Benedict XV, in 1917, expressed it in the introduction to his peace plan, when he said that it is the policy of the Vatican "to maintain absolute impartiality towards all belligerents . . . and to bring the people and their leaders to more moderate resolutions in the discussion of means that will secure a just and lasting peace." How far the Church has deviated from this declared policy will be touched upon in the course of this short essay.

When the first world war broke out, both Austria and Germany were represented at the Holy See. The separation of church and state in France had caused France to sustain a quarrel with the Vatican and she had no diplomatic representative there. England, a Protestant country, never considered an ambassador to the Holy See. She had done with the papacy in the sixteenth century and continued to follow a policy of diplomatic non-intercourse. The presence of the Russian

Tsar on the side of England and France only increased the disposition of the people of these two powers to suspect the pope of partiality for Austria and Germany. The Vatican was traditionally hostile to Russia, a country that was regarded as an insuperable obstacle to the advance of Catholicism in the east. Russia had opposed the free operation of the Church in her dominions, especially in Poland, a Catholic country. George Seldes repeats a roundabout quotation attributed to Count Sforza in which the latter quoted Cardinal Gasparri, papal secretary of state under Benedict, as saying to the historian Ferrero: "You know very well the manner in which Catholics were treated in Tsarist Russia. The victory of Russia, to whom France and England had made so many promises, would have constituted for the Vatican a disaster greater than the Reformation."

The declaration of Italy on the side of the Allies added fuel to the burning suspicion that Benedict favored the Central powers. There was no love lost between Victor Emmanuel and the Prisoner of the Vatican. It was natural to imagine a victory for the pope if Catholic Austria triumphed over the Italian kingdom. The Church would then stand to recover the Papal States. The mischief of Garibaldian nationalism would be liquidated the first day the pope, under Austrian auspices, stepped out of the Vatican City. That unholy trinity of Soul, Brain and Sword would disappear, thanks to Austria, and the true creed would be restored to its temporal grandeur. In the eyes of the Allies, this trend could only be corrected by sending envoys to match wits with the German and Austrian ambassadors stationed in the Vatican. Inquiries were made and *personae gratae* appeared in a hurry.

On the other side of the pro-Austrian charges against Benedict, can be found evidence of Benedict's sympathy for Belgium after she had been violated by the Prussians. There were people, of course, who demanded that Benedict speak out more vigorously against Germany and show greater sym-

pathy for Cardinal Mercier's people. We ought to remember, in reply, that a drive for peace was still going on in the first year of the war, and the victorious German armies would sooner listen to oblique words than to papal jeremiads. The last pope who had permitted his passions to punctuate policy was Pius IX. It took a generation after his death before the Church recovered from its low esteem. In a consistorial allocution Benedict condemned the Belgium outrages and Gasparri wrote a letter to the Belgian minister in which he amplified the Pope's denunciation of the violation of Belgian neutrality. Shortly afterward, the Pope again protested the interference by the Germans with the freedom of the bishops of Namur and Tournai. In 1915 Benedict wrote a letter to the German episcopate in which he expressed his displeasure at the condemnation by German Catholics of Catholics in enemy countries.

Overall Vatican policy was aimed at peace. In various addresses (January 22, February 7 and March 21, 1915) Benedict reiterated his neutral position. In his January 22nd speech to the Cardinals, he said: "And we do proclaim it without qualification, condemning every injustice by whatever side it may have been committed. . . . But to involve the authority of the pope in the actual contests of the belligerents would surely be neither appropriate nor useful."

In the months preceding Italy's declaration of war, we have it on Premier Salandra's authority that Benedict put his entire diplomatic strength behind Italian neutrality. He attempted, through his nuncio at Vienna, to get Austria to give up Trentino to the Brenner Pass in order to tempt Italy away from the bargains incorporated in the secret Treaty of London. The attempt failed. On May 24, 1915, Italy went to war. This resulted in the departure of enemy envoys from the Holy See because Italy did not recognize the territorial sovereignty of the Vatican Palace and still retained the power of granting diplomatic immunity to all envoys in the Vatican City.

In the spring of 1915, Gasparri, says Car-

dinal Baudrillart in his book *Benoit XV*, gave out the Pope's five conditions for peace. They were as follows:

- (1) Restoration of France's territorial integrity as a first rate power
- (2) Belgian independence
- (3) Austria-Hungary to remain a great power, but this was not to exclude the possibility of concessions on Trentino
- (4) Poland was to be re-established within the most generous boundaries possible
- (5) A Balkan settlement designed to exclude Russia from Constantinople

It can be seen from the above conditions of peace that the Allies would protest the Pope's terms as a deliberate design for sowing dissension within their ranks. Points (4) and (5) were aimed at Russia and bear out Sforza's comment on Gasparri's opinion of the doleful results that might confound the Church if the Tsar reached Constantinople. No such finger of criticism had been pointed at any of the Central powers, nor were any of them mentioned specifically by name. Here was a plain case of partiality, a case in which the Church, disregarding the alliances of war, criticized a non-Catholic power that had traditionally challenged papal sovereignty. This was not all. Italy began to feel that the propaganda for peace that was emanating from the Pope's headquarters, would propagandize Italy and pacify the not too enthusiastic troops of Victor Emmanuel. The Pope's propaganda could be easily spread among the Italians within the peninsula. It would have little effect on the armies of the Central Powers. The curtain of censorship in Austria and Germany would stop the peace talk from getting to the soldiers.

In August 1917, the Pope tried again to advance terms for peace that would be more favorably received than his first venture in 1915. This time Russia was not singled out for criticism, which made the overture more acceptable to the Allies. The Kaiser's reaction was one of hidden cynicism. He sought to use it for moral propaganda because there

happened to be a war going on that he wanted very much to win. Through Pacelli, the papal nuncio at Munich, the Kaiser commended the effort, but amongst his own kind he dismissed the new peace drive with insulting remarks pencilled on the margin of the Pope's message.

Michaelis, who had succeeded Bethmann-Hollweg as chancellor of Germany, did not conceal his visible annoyance with Benedict's peace plan. Each power sought, in the realistic words of Michaelis, who spoke for Germany, "to place opprobrium of the possible collapse of the papal peace intermediation upon our opponents, and to place them in the wrong." Emperor Charles of Austria, before he got wind of the Secret Treaty of London, told the Pope categorically that Austria would never surrender Trentino to Italy. Clemenceau saw in the move a wedge in Allied solidarity. The diplomatic intermediary of the Allies in Rome was ordered to remain aloof. On the question of Belgium alone, the Kaiser, speaking for his generals, made no offer to restore its sovereignty. The Germans maintained the right to participate in its post-war government, which meant turning Belgium into a buffer satellite and exposing the northeast flatlands of France to future invasion. Thus the second peace plan, like the first, collapsed. Both sides charged Benedict with belittling a struggle for survival by referring to it casually as "useless carnage" in his message for peace. Each country's press attacked the term as an insult to its dead.

Many Italians blamed the Caporetto disaster of October 1917 on the peace propaganda of the Pope. It is on record that the mutinying troops shouted "Down with war! Long live the Pope!" It may be allowed that the peace propaganda from the Vatican might have affected the Italians more than the other belligerents. To a government fighting for survival after Caporetto, any deterioration of morale due to papal propaganda, real or imaginary, was a blow to the war effort. An impartial church would only mean a silent pope who sent his army of

priests to administer last rites without any further remarks. Peace propaganda in wartime *must* have military overtones. The very location of the Holy See in the center of the Italian government posed a delicate question for Benedict. As a Christian, he would have to insist on his peace message. His message would be bound to have greater weight in Italy than in any other country at war. Can his peace offensive, then, be considered impartial? The Allies didn't think so.

When Caporetto followed the August peace plan, Clemenceau bitterly attacked the Pope's meddling and Baron Sonnino made the desperate charge that the Pope was being coached by the enemy to issue peace plans that trickled out to the men at the front and demoralized them. Benedict's Christmas letter of 1917 reveals the depth of his disappointment. He is on the defensive. Perhaps he first realized the possibility of psychological warfare in his peace offensive and the effect of the Caporetto disaster on Italian morale. After the summer of 1917, the Vatican remained silent until the armistice of 1918.

Pius XII, who, as Monsignor Pacelli, had been Benedict's nuncio to Munich during the first world war, was a trained diplomat of an important Roman family closely related to the legal department of the Holy See. In the spring of 1939, he started off his new papal policy with caution and moderation. The strong speech that Pius XI had prepared to answer Mussolini's attack on Catholic Action was quietly filed away. Pius XII tried once more to conciliate the Duce on the eve of war, despite the many breaches that Mussolini had committed against the Lateran treaty. Pius offered to mediate in the Danzig dispute. He questioned no dictator's good faith despite their blatant record. He appealed to the world for peace. When war broke out, he repeated the traditional policy of neutrality that the Vatican would follow in an encyclical entitled *Functions of the State in the Modern World* (Oct. 20, 1939).

Immediately after the attack on Poland, Pius condemned the outrages committed

there. Cardinal Hlond, the primate of Poland, sought refuge in Rome and received the sympathy of the entire Vatican corps. When Foreign Minister Ribbentrop appeared at the Vatican to discuss "peace," Pius made no effort to receive him. After the invasion of Belgium and Holland, Pius wrote strong messages of sympathy condemning Hitler's brutality. He did not go beyond re-affirming the principle of peace promulgated in the Christmas address of 1939. These were: (1) the right to life and independence of all nations; (2) disarmament; (3) juridical institutions to guarantee observance of treaties and to provide for their revision; (4) recognition of real needs and just demands of nations and peoples; (5) acceptance by leaders and people of moral responsibility, and the principles of justice and love. The address itself is extremely cautious and vague. Compared to the specific points regarding Belgium in Benedict's peace plan of 1917, we note the complete absence of specific provisions about Poland. No nation is mentioned by name even though, in passing, Poland and Finland are cited as examples of persecution. Everyone can render an opinion on what should not have been said on this occasion, because a brief can be written for all actions. The Pope preferred to pull his moral punches and await developments. If he had played Hildebrand or Savonarola, the whole Vatican apparatus might have been liquidated by the Nazis. The Church was more interested in survival than in provoking lunatics with pastoral letters. Subsequently, the Pope ingratiated himself with the Axis by receiving soldiers and blessing them, a ceremony that Professor Salvemini reminds us, was never performed for the Allied troops by Benedict in the first world war. Salvemini further quotes the remark of Pius to some 600 Italian soldiers, made in February, 1941: "Although war is horrifying, it cannot be denied that it reveals the greatness of many heroic souls, who sacrifice their lives to carry out the duties imposed by Christian conscience." (Quite a far cry from Benedict's "useless carnage.") On August 17, 1941,

says Salvemini, the Pope signed postcards, notebooks and papers tendered to him by German soldiers. On September 1 and 3, he again received Axis soldiers. Official policy was still, traditionally, neutral. Cianfarra, the *New York Times* correspondent, was told that "the attitude and responsibility of the Vatican are entirely separate from those of the Italian clergy and Catholics. While the Holy See is responsible towards the Catholics of all nations and therefore, its attitude must be inspired by this responsibility, the Italian clergy and Catholics have specific duties to their country and will, as always, fulfill them generously." It remains a question of protocol (let alone taste) whether the reception tendered by Pius to the Duke of Spoleto, before his coronation as puppet king of Croatia, was in keeping with the official neutrality policy of 1939.

It is in the Pope's favor that he did not yield to the Axis promptings to join them in an anti-Bolshevik crusade while Russia was holding the fort along the Dneiper. Cardinal Hlond's report on Nazi atrocities may have made him wary of joining the Axis. It was plain that neither nazism nor communism would tolerate the congregations within the Catholic Church in the post-war world. The Church, when it entered into a concordat with Hitler in 1934, had already had its fingers burnt pulling out Von Papen's chestnuts, and was still disillusioned over the Lateran treaty.

On the propaganda front, the *Osservatore Romano* was seized by Mussolini for keeping up its pre-war impartiality. It was forced to alter its tone. It could not support the Axis and it ended up publishing little but religious and local news. Its circulation dropped from 100,000 to 25,000 in a few weeks because its paper supply was rationed by the Duce. Cianfarra says that secret agents were posted inside the Vatican to keep an eye on the corps. Mussolini and the Nazis seemed to have known about everything that was being discussed within the Holy See. Phones were tapped and mail opened. The radio in the

Vatican was silenced to prevent it from becoming a beacon for the Allied bombers.

Right through the war, the Italian clergy loyally cooperated with the government. Bishops were notified that they owed allegiance to their country and that they should cooperate loyally, as long as the cooperation did not conflict with religious principles. The Archbishop of Gorizia, Carlo Margotti, said in a pastoral letter "... The Italians can no longer be kept within the unjust frontiers of the peninsula and are seeking on the sea the outlet assigned to them by Providence." The priests were told to consider themselves like any other citizens in the community in defending the righteousness of their country's action in wartime. This, needless to say, has always been acknowledged by the popes as the inevitable conduct in time of war. Providence is available to all bishops, in all countries, to prove to their countrymen that a Catholic's patriotism is not compromised by his religious faith. The only thing that may prevent a bishop from calling upon Providence to bolster his argument, is the amount of good taste and common sense with which he has been endowed by Providence to keep him from making a fool of himself.

The Vatican supported Pétain from the time the Vichy government was established. Pétain was a favorite son. It was a splendid opportunity to negotiate for the removal of the French anti-clerical laws that had embarrassed the Church for thirty-seven years. Cardinal Gelier, archbishop of Lyons, acted as the French intermediary for the negotiations. The new concordat included full freedom for the religious orders and congregations, reestablishment of religious teaching in the schools, recognition of Catholic Action, and the return of church property confiscated in 1904 when the anti-clerical campaign was at its height. The negotiations were held in some secrecy and no announcement was made officially. We are led to believe that the concordat would have become official only after the end of the war. This discretion has been upheld by time.

Farinacci, the secretary-general of the

Fascist party, attacked the Vatican because of its favorable attitude towards Pétain. He interpreted *L'Osservatore Romano's* article praising Pétain's work of reconstruction as betraying the Vatican's desire for the victory of Great Britain over the Axis. This was simply an uncompromising belligerent's way of expressing hatred for any understanding with France, on any level of understanding, except that of master and slave.

At one time during the war, after Russia had been invaded and had thrown in her lot with the Allies, President Roosevelt tried hard to get the Pope to make a statement commending the rightness of the Allied cause. It seemed that American Catholics were confused now that Stalin, the anti-Christ, was on the side of the Allies. They needed guidance to re-orient their beliefs and give sanction to their support of the war effort. Myron Taylor, the envoy from the United States, reported his failure to win a word of sympathy for the Russian side. While the Vatican condemned Nazi tactics, there were Catholics on both sides of the battle and the Pope could not prefer a Nazi defeat. It would be a breach of neutrality if he did, and, besides, he had no inclination to see the Sistine Chapel leveled by the Hitler goths.

It would be difficult to build up an argument to prove that Pius favored a Nazi victory. He feared them. Their victory would have meant the end of Catholic Action throughout Europe. A triumph for Hitler's brand of totalitarianism would have brought the Church under Goebbels's department of enlightenment, —with severe punishment for those who joined the non-juring clergy. The papacy would have been tolerated only on Napoleonic conditions. It might have existed only insofar as it acknowledged the supremacy of German policy and coordinated its activities with those of Bishop Muller. A special branch of the SS, (costumed in medieval Nuremberg uniforms) might have replaced the Swiss retainers. As for Italy, a satellite, it would have become a satrapy under the nominal sovereignty of Mussolini.

Who knows whether such fantasies as these might not have coursed through the wrought mind of Pius during the Nazi occupation of Rome? Like Hildebrand, who loved justice and hated iniquity, he might have chosen exile. But the choice was not so simple. The Vatican sheltered a large number of refugees from the Hitler terror. It was an island of sanity in a sea of turmoil. The Pope held his ground, demanded through channels his prerogatives, and accepted insults with some dignity. He was there to keep the Church from being liquidated. He would do business with any temporal powers that advanced him privileges, be they fascists or democrats. Perhaps he reasoned that the souls of men would, in time, occupy a realm that is non-political. The political and religious repressions of Franco, Salazar and Pétain were of small concern to the papal hierarchy. When we consider this point of view, we observe the consistency of both Benedict and Pius, even though they may have reacted differently in the minutiae. There is a world of difference in their historical settings and it is no use attempting a comparison of their actions. One may say that Benedict was more direct, more sincere, less ambivalent and more principled. To prove this, actions would have to be cited, and actions committed in different historical settings cannot be equated. If Benedict, as Professor Salvemini suggests, had not greeted the Duke of Spoleto and blessed Allied soldiers, as Pius did, we must remember that Benedict was still the Prisoner of the Vatican, was still at odds with "free-thinking" France and traditionally beholden to Catholic Austria. The Church does not decide diplomatic questions simply on the basis of absolute morality, and no analogy can be drawn between the moral decisions of an individual and those of an institution or sovereignty. The Catholic Church, as distinct from the Catholic religion, is a power that competes with other powers. It has a diplomatic corps. It makes concordats to strengthen its power. No question for the Church is simply a question of personal ethics, even though the religion

that it propagates teaches the integrity of the individual and the absolutes of morality. One may object to this inference of *realpolitik*, but this is the way that the Church

has followed in its rise to power, and the Church can show a long history of accomplishment to prove that it knows how to survive when others have long since perished.

A New Fate for Outline Maps

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The Old Way

After all, I mused, this is a ninth grade social studies class. To be precise, this is a class in which we shall study the geography and the history of Pennsylvania. And in such a class, I continued in my musing, it is imperative that my pupils do map work.

But this led to the sober realization that most pupils do not like to do maps. They find it uninspiring, uncreative and a form of busy work, at least as the assignment is often presented to them. They are handed an outline map, given a list of geographical features to fill in, and that is that. The finished product is rarely a thing of beauty in which the pupil can take pride, and there is little intellectual challenge in the mere process of copying certain things from a large map onto a smaller one. Yet I knew that the making of maps must be an essential step in our work, and that I had an obligation to assign them. But perhaps I could find a way to make them interesting and meaningful.

The Query

"How many of you have done outline maps?" I asked my pupils. The query was greeted with snorts and grunts and sighs of resignation. While I could not condone their negative responses, I most certainly understood their reasons and I sympathized with them.

My pupils were justified in their feelings. They had been exposed to many of these seatwork chores. Frequently their final maps suffered the ignominious oblivion of being

stacked into their pupil file folders or of being placed in the obscurity of the lower left hand drawer of the teacher's desk. I know whereof I speak for until this moment I too had been guilty of perpetrating this absurd pedagogical instrument of needless and useless torture.

The Explanation

I explained that this assignment would be different and much more pleasant for many reasons; these outline maps would be useful. Since the scope of our course included the study of Pennsylvania's history, geography, civics, political organization, etc., my pupils would be free to select a topic which was of great interest to them provided it was within the scope. And of course, these finished outline maps would be used and seen, not merely filed.

The Assignment of Topics

I was pleased at the array of topics; it certainly represented a fine range of pertinent topics which were highly indicative of pupil interests. Following is a partial list of topics selected.

- Forts of Pennsylvania
- Important Historical Events in Pennsylvania
- State Parks and Scenic Areas of Pennsylvania
- Pennsylvania Authors
- Historical Figures of Pennsylvania
- Major Transportation Systems in Pennsylvania
- Natural Resources of Pennsylvania
- Wild Life of Pennsylvania
- Great Battles Fought in Pennsylvania
- Populations and County Seats of Pennsylvania
- Counties
- Early Schools of Pennsylvania
- Indians of Pennsylvania
- Pennsylvania Statesmen
- Ethnic Groups of Pennsylvania

Judges of Pennsylvania
Geographic Regions and Industrial Centers
Major Colleges and Universities
Mountains and Waterways
Important Cities of Pennsylvania
Major Industries of Pennsylvania

Requirements

The requirements of the assignment were fourfold. And each of the four parts meshed into a sensible gestalt.

First, the pupils were to plan the production of their outline maps. These maps were to be replete with identification, legends, codes, shadings, lettering, etc. To achieve these ends the youngsters were given two periods in which to do the necessary research. All source materials were conveniently within reach in our school's central library. Thus, in this atmosphere, the geographical research began. A finished outline map was merely the beginning. But it was not to be a piece of arty decoration.

The second requirement included the sifting and sorting of data that were to be included on the map. This vast array of facts was to be made into an orderly outline, properly detailed, functionally and structurally correct.

Third, each pupil was to present the collected data in an oral talk to the class. This was to be delivered extemporaneously; it was not to be read and certainly not to be memorized. And their outlines were to serve as cues and prompters.

The final phase of this work involved the transposing of the information from the outline to a large relief map of Pennsylvania.

Objectives

These requirements served to achieve the following objectives:

- To create an awareness of the geographical factors which influence our state and its history.
- To use outline maps as active vital instruments in creating this awareness.
- To help the pupils organize their research data into a written form and a graphic form.
- To present all this data orally in illustrated lecture form.
- To enable the pupils to transpose from one map to another with a reasonable degree of facility.
- To encourage questioning and discussion of geographical concepts.

Evaluation

The evaluations were determined by the adjudged success with which the require-

ments were fulfilled and the objectives attained. Three judgments were made by me (map, outline and talk); one was a vote on a grade made by the class for each pupil after the talk.

Conclusions

Now that it was all over, the whole affair was dissected and analyzed by my pupils and me. There were positive statements and negative comments. The preponderance of judgments was positive.

On the plus side the pupils welcomed the opportunity to learn more about the topics that they were interested in. They were also learning about topics of importance that were their peers' interests. They felt that this approach was far more enticing than cramming dry facts into their heads or cramming them on a soon-to-be forgotten outline map. The class agreed that the objectives were achieved through the fulfillment of the requirements. They agreed that they were graded fairly and that their map work was appreciated; it was not just a lot of busy work, or an unpleasant nonsensical chore.

The negative comments were concerned mainly with two phases. My pupils thought that all teacher comments should be made after the class evaluation since such remarks might tend to sway the class. Secondly, they felt that spreading the twenty-seven map talks over a period of a month rather than two weeks would have avoided some of the monotony that ensued.

Summary

As I look back, this different approach to map work seems increasingly valid and purposeful. No longer can I condone and foster the deadening chore of filling in a geographical maze. If a map is worth doing it is worth talking about. If it is worth talking about, it is worth organizing the data intelligently. If the talk is worth hearing, then the map is worthy of being used as a visual aid to enhance the oral presentation. These considerations, I believe, afford a new fate for outline maps and concomitantly, a new fate for the pupils who must complete a given task.

Citizenship Education in An Age of Space

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The Soviet Union's launching of the first earth satellite ushered in an Age of Space. Since October 4, 1957 this event has brought a note of disquiet for the United States and our allies. While American deficiencies have been variously labeled as security leaks, inter-service rivalry, lack of imagination, inadequate leadership, etc., all seem to agree that to regain the lead in the race with the Russians fundamental changes touching many phases of American life, particularly the curriculum of our schools, are required.

The demand for more scientists and engineers has long been made by industry; now government presses this need in the name of national survival. To meet our scientific and technological needs, our schools are asked to launch rigorous but yet fairly clear reforms. As yet, no major proposals have been made as to what should be the response of the Citizenship Education program in our public schools to the Sputnik challenge.

THE EXISTING PROGRAM

Social studies in the New York public schools is charted to begin in the first grade and is to continue throughout the senior high. Good citizenship is to be developed through studies that begin with the home and then proceed progressively out to the world. At the junior high level more concentrated courses follow on New York State history and government followed by United States history and government and concluding with economics and geography. In the high schools the social studies program generally consists first of world history and then of American history.

The major portion of the program is the responsibility of the high school grades (10-12). The elementary and junior high programs labor under several disadvantages. The preparation of these teachers is likely to contain only a bare minimum of training in the social sciences. Secondly, the demands on these teachers are heavy in that they are often required to present all of the natural sciences, social sciences and most of the humanities. Finally, in the Long Island schools at least, considerable time is spent in the study of local history.

Most New York state high school Citizenship Education programs begin with a one year world history course. This is presented, according to the State Curriculum Syllabus, as a chronology, largely Europe centered, which stresses the last four or five centuries. This is then followed by a year and a half or two year American history sequence. The first year is a chronological development to 1900. The second year continues the chronology to the present. If time permits, the final semester is devoted to what are called the fundamental issues in American life, "... each developed in its historic setting."¹

The focus of the program is American history in the 10th through 12th grades.² This is justified on the grounds of loyalty and patriotism. It is felt "... common experiences and common aspirations are essential ingredients in patriotism." Secondly, it is felt that a history centered program promotes a sense of "... continuity of national development ..." and the "interrelatedness of the geographical, economic and political factors

in this development." Finally they desire to provide at least an introduction to the "... historian's professional problem of interpreting evidence."³

The objectives of Citizenship Education are summed up as follows:

"It should be the basic aim that pupils acquire the information and understanding needed for intelligent citizenship and the skills of study and of communication required for continued growth in civic competence. It is especially important that pupils learn to think clearly and to recognize the techniques of false propaganda."⁴

The New York State Citizenship Education program can thus be summarized as a primarily senior high school endeavor in which the principal organization is chronology, the central discipline history and the primary focus America.⁵

RESPONDING TO THE CHALLENGE OF AN AGE OF SPACE

It is well to point out that the nature and content of the Citizenship Education curriculum has been the subject of considerable thought. History, broadly conceived, can include some of all of the social science disciplines. Moreover, any program will be based upon the resources of the teacher and consequently may vary considerably from any recommended syllabus. Thus there have developed a number of excellent offerings based upon the present foundation. Nonetheless the state-recommended program with its chronological approach is likely to be regarded as a maximum rather than as a minimum. Consequently a re-evaluation of this recommended curriculum would seem particularly desirable at this time.

An analysis of the challenge to the Citizenship Education program might proceed along these lines. First, what are the implications for social studies posed by the current emergency? Second, how do our local, national and international needs relate to the goals that have been projected for citizenship education? Thirdly, are we employing methods that are likely to produce the kinds of goals demanded at this time? Finally, are we prescribing a training program for social studies teachers that will render them poten-

tially competent to apply the methods towards achieving the desired goals?

The challenge of an Age of Space is both positive and negative. On the negative side there is the threatened destruction of Western Civilization. Short of that there is concern lest the pattern of international power be altered so as to project the Soviet orbit into a position of predominance. Even the possibility of an "armed neutrality" or "peaceful co-existence" carries certain alarming prospects. On the positive side, the challenge projects the possibility of disarmament in the face of opposing "ultimate weapons" and the turning of our world's energy toward the terrestrial betterment of mankind and the projecting of our frontiers into outer space. The mere statement of the nature of the Sputnik challenge suggests the desirability of reconsidering the suggested curriculum. First it would seem that there is less justification for a highly "Europe centered" program of world history in the face of a changing role played by Europe in the world. Secondly, the emphasis upon the nation-state as man's terminal political community might be reconsidered toward conceptualizing the ideal as a more broadly based horizontal integration of peoples on a functional basis.

Under the present idea of the goals for the Citizenship Education program the following are considered as important.

1. "All pupils should develop an appreciation of the moral and spiritual values of the past, enthusiasm for the American way of life and acceptance of civil responsibility."

2. "Many will develop an interest in the cultural and recreational possibilities of history and related literature and arts;

3. Some may acquire an intellectual interest in historical and allied research studies."⁶

A good argument could be made for inverting the order of these goals. The social problems of the Age of Space demand an intellectual preoccupation with concepts and methodology broadly based in all of the social sciences. The important questions about history are not so much what has happened and in what order, but rather what were the social, cultural and personal pressures which lay behind social action. In a period of problem-solving such a changed emphasis could

be easily justified. Any program for creating enthusiasm for the "American way of life" and the "moral and spiritual values of the past" demands considerable elaboration and might be challenged as questionable on the grounds that our present needs demand an air of critical evaluation inconsistent with much self-praise. Taken collectively these goals hardly seem up to the demand of supplying the intellectual leadership necessary to prevent men from being relegated to robots. It would seem advisable at a minimum to undertake correlative studies to see if our citizenship education curriculum is in fact producing better citizens.

At the level of methods it should be asked, can we produce thinking people most effectively through a program with a predominantly historical orientation? Does history as a discipline occupy itself with the kinds of questions that provide the kind of action desired in the present so that there will be a future? Are not the primary questions ones of consequences rather than sequence? The place of history as the record of man's progress through time must be kept in mind but the age of space would seem to demand greater use of current research from all of the social sciences particularly sociology, political science, social psychology and cultural anthropology.

While we have weathered challenges in the past whose prospects were equally dismal, the magnitude of the present threat and what it seems to portend for the future is all but unprecedented. At a minimum, a panel of educators broadly based in the social

sciences should be immediately established to at least assess the challenge to our Citizenship Education program brought by the launching of an Age of Space. The convening of such a panel is imperative not only because of the problems and possibilities poised by the dawning of a new age, but also because of the prospects of a revitalized science program in our secondary schools and colleges. An increased emphasis upon science and technology is certain to bring a comparable crop of social repercussions. Equally important is the need for increased knowledge about society and human action to achieve even our short-run scientific and technological necessities we need to mobilize and coordinate men. A sentence written by Charles A. Beard nearly twenty-five years ago remains appropriate. "Without knowledge we perish; without organization, knowledge pertaining to any large area of affairs is useless."⁷

¹ Bureau of Secondary Curriculum Development, The State Education Department, *Citizenship Education: A Syllabus for Senior High Schools* (Albany: The State Education Department,) 1956, p. 7

² Emphasis upon American history, according to Russell H. Broadhead and Lewis W. Burnett, has been increasing over the past 10 years. Ruth Ellsworth and Ole Sand, co-editors. *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum*. (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 26th Yearbook, 1955), p. 26

³ *Ibid.*, p. 13

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 13

⁵ In addition, preparing students for the Regents examination seems to further circumscribe the curriculum.

⁶ *Op cit. Citizenship Education*, p. 13

⁷ Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, (New York: Charles Scribners Sons, 1934), p. 15

The Teachers' Page

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ON IMPROVING THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

In his report on education in Russia,¹ Marc Raeff, associate professor of History at Clark University, Massachusetts, described

a number of interesting educational practices:

"There are some other aspects of the Soviet education system I found impressive. Two things struck me very favorably in the history classes.

The first is the constant effort made by the teacher to relate the subject-matter of the day to material taken up earlier (sometimes even in previous years) and to elicit a similar recall on the part of the students by leading questions. Thus, the entire subject is constantly present in the minds of the students, even while they are examining a specific problem.

"In the second place, while explaining the lesson, the teacher mentions works of literature (novels, poems, dramas) which students may read to obtain a more vivid picture of the period or problems dealt with in class. The teacher does not merely list additional sources, he refers to them specifically in his questions or presentation. From the responses of the pupils it was clear that a number of them had followed the suggestions and had read these books.

"The pupils, in fact, are expected to use the library extensively."

All teachers will agree that in the teaching of history, both practices, that of making frequent referrals to past historical material covered and that of utilizing literary works other than historical texts to illustrate and to impart life to historical material, are effective teaching techniques. For a teacher to use these techniques he must have a thorough knowledge of history and a rich background in the humanities. This poses a question for teacher training institutions: How much of a teacher's preparation should be towards the development of scholarship in subject matter and how much of it should be in methodology?

Another interesting aspect of secondary education in Russia relates to the size of the school, which is considerably smaller than it is in the large cities of the United States. There are always advantages and disadvantages to anything as compared with something else. Among the advantages of a small high school is that it makes possible greater intimacy between all members of the faculty and the student body. In a large comprehensive high school having several thousand students the principal, for example, can rarely know intimately more than a small fraction of all the students. It would seem desirable that during every youngster's stay in high school he should have some personal contact with the principal. Yet, the advantages of a large high school cannot be overlooked, particularly in its ability to provide a variety of curricula to meet the varied educational needs (in terms of abilities and

potentialities) of the students. A large high school also has certain advantages with respect to the inculcation of democratic values.

Dr. James B. Conant, in his evaluation of the American high school states:²

"I am convinced that a satisfactory course of study for the bright boy or girl can be offered in the public high school which is of general or comprehensive type. I am further convinced that the students in the comprehensive school derive certain advantages from their school years which are denied to their contemporaries in special schools."

One of the much debated questions today, in connection with this whole problem of improving the American high school, concerns the education of the better students. The term "gifted" was first used to refer to these boys and girls. Currently, the accepted description is the *academically talented* students. What the Russians are doing in this field is of no small interest to us in this country. According to Dr. Raeff, the Russians constantly emphasize "the practical, political, and generally humanistic values of education." Therefore, "comradely competition," which characterizes all aspects of the Soviet system, is true also in the schools. Achievement is measured not only by grades, but by "the amount of study, by the enthusiasm with which assignments and problems are tackled, by the interest displayed. Formal school awards include public praise, lists of honors, and gold and silver medals at graduation." In many respects these practices do not differ from those in our high schools.

Probably one of the most significant facets of Russian secondary education is the use of teachers and methods of instruction to which some reference has already been made. There is much more reliance upon the textbook with formal recitation based on textbook material. Classroom time is spent in teacher explanation of textbook material and recitation. Teacher pupil conferences, individual and/or group, are held each week to provide remedial help for poorer students and to encourage advanced work with the better students. The emphasis in teacher training is more on subject matter than on methodology.

The real issue in this whole debate concerning the improvement of high school education centers on what *are the real objectives of a high school education*. In the United States, the emphasis with respect to objectives, until Sputnik, has been the *education of the whole individual, intellectual, physical, vocational, social and emotional*. Our schools have, in fact, taken over (filling the vacuum created by cultural changes) many of the functions which other agencies (particularly the home and the church and society as a whole—the press, literature, radio, movies, and television, systems of reward and punishment) have in large measure abandoned. Dr. Raeff expressed it this way:

"I think it is quite clear by now that the basic philosophy of the Soviet schools is very different from that of the United States. (Our schools and colleges are supposed to develop the student's personality, educate the whole man—in fact, substitute for all the traditional and cultural institutions (like family and church) that have grown weak in the last half-century or so. In Soviet Russia, the function of the schools is limited and very clearly defined; to impart knowledge, to teach various subjects, and only incidentally to take care of the student's emotional or personality development. They don't even have a vocational guidance program, I was told.

"A good illustration of the schools' unwillingness to take on any other function than teaching is the refusal to lower the school age from seven to six. Six-year-olds cannot be taught in a formal class situation, the schools argue; moreover, they have physical and emotional needs that require special attention. Soviet schools let the children come only when they are old enough to receive knowledge in a formal way."

Whether we in this country should favor more emphasis on intellectual development in our high schools or stress the education of the *whole personality*, giving emphasis to every aspect as the need for it may exist, should be based not only on what Russia is doing, but what is ultimately best for us. We have listened to, and read with interest, for example, Rear Admiral Hyman Rickover's views on this subject. He is a great man and very capable, but in his own field. We do not subscribe to the belief that being an expert in one area of human knowledge automatically makes one an expert in other areas. In the field of education—particularly on the secondary level . . . we are concerned with

young people who have a wide range of abilities and equally as wide a range of motivating drives or absence of them. These children come from homes and neighborhoods some of which are well and some are poorly equipped with respect to the overall training of the child. We must decide whether no one should be concerned with rebuilding and re-directing the moral, spiritual, and emotional aspects of personality or whether in the neglect of these training functions in the home and in the community at large, the school should continue to assume this responsibility. All this can be done as well as training of the intellect.

IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING

In a letter to the editor of the *New York Times*,³ Harold Sprout, professor of Geography and International Relations at Princeton University, comments on an editorial in the same paper entitled "Improving Graduate Study."⁴ Dr. Sprout's observations are worth noting.

One of the issues raised in the editorial and in the letter concerns the relationship between "effective teaching and creative scholarship." The author of the letter comments:

"My own experience and observation suggests that teaching in suitable quantities stimulates creative scholarship, and that creative scholarship fosters more effective teaching."

As used in the above sense, teaching takes for granted students who require no special motivation except a desire to learn on their part and a love of teaching and a knowledge of the subject on the part of the teacher. However, even where such conditions exist other factors can stifle or hinder good teaching. In many institutions, according to Dr. Sprout, the environment is not conducive to scholarly work. Heavy teaching schedules and inadequate libraries and laboratories are the principal deterrents. An inadequate salary, in so far as it may affect the teacher's efforts at self improvement, scholarly research and creative activity, also affect the quality of teaching.

However, a major part of the responsibility to maintain effective teaching lies within the teacher himself. He himself must guard against ineffectuality by pursuing creative scholarship. Most college teachers, the author feels, (as well as high school teachers) start with a good measure of "incentive and enthusiasm." Furthermore,

"Teaching itself in the spring of one's career generally provides plenty of adventure, experimentation, excitement and inspiration."

"But how is the teacher to avoid middle-age fatigue?"

The customary program that some teachers follow is to read new books, revise their lectures, and prepare new courses of study. Students themselves frequently provide additional stimulus. Unfortunately, there are few teachers who are "capable of achieving a continuously expanding intellectual experience and sustaining undiminished enthusiasm without strong and frequent stimuli . . ."

Dr. Sprout feels that a more "potent challenge" is needed, namely: "creative scholarly work which results in publication" and "active participation in public affairs or in some other form of self-expression."

Self-expression, then, is one of the keys to creative activity and the stimulus which is conducive to effective teaching. The opportunity for creative writing in publication is obviously better for the college than the secondary school teacher, since publishers have greater esteem for the college professor than for the high school teacher. However, not all teachers are attracted to creative writing for a variety of reasons. Moreover, creative writing is only one of many avenues for self-expression. In the main, the teacher must find avenues for creativity for himself and within himself. He can be helped by an enlightened environment within the institution where he is employed. Such an environment encourages individual and/or group experimentation, offers opportunity for the utilization of special skills and talents, and gives recognition in tangible form to work well done.

FROM THE CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE

An urgent plea to channels of communication for more imaginative and effective efforts to inform American citizens concerning the United Nations and world affairs was made November 21 by a Steering Committee under the chairmanship of Paul G. Hoffman . . . following a two-year nation-wide survey of American reactions to the UN in which more than 30 experts participated.

"International news is often a matter of life or death for a nation and its citizens," the Committee stated. "We believe the people really want to know." It is therefore the responsibility of all sources of information "to see that the American people are fully informed" about these matters.

Two principal facts stand out in the findings: (1) The large majority of Americans approve the United Nations as a vital instrument in dealing with world affairs. (2) This support is not based on clear understanding of what the UN is and what it can do, and is often linked with emotional factors having little to do with the UN's own record.

The greatest emphasis in the survey was on interviews with more than 1300 community leaders in twelve representative cities.⁶ There was general approval of the UN and its objectives by a substantial majority of these community leaders, even in areas once considered to be "isolationist." However, most of those interviewed were little informed about specific UN activities. The survey indicated that even though community leaders are very active in public affairs of a civic and charitable nature, only a small proportion of those surveyed devote much attention to world affairs, even when they profess an interest in them. This apathy, which is even more pronounced in the general public, appears to result "from a feeling that these are remote matters about which the individual can do nothing." The Committee feels this lack of attention is also due in part to inadequate coverage and quality of presentation by information channels.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The recommendations of the Steering Committee were directed to the four most important channels of communication for influencing American attitudes in world affairs and the United Nations. They were: (1) The United States Government; (2) the United Nations; (3) mass media; and (4) national citizens organizations.

1. The role of the United States Government is crucial in informing the American public about the UN. The Committee urges greater recognition of the need for developing means of informing the public more accurately and speedily on U.S. policies in the UN with the aid of mass media and private organizations. The Department of State and the United States Mission to the United Nations need to expand their public affairs operations and to cooperate more closely with one another.

2. The Committee feels that the United Nations has not in the past made the most of its opportunities for informing the American public about its activities. One reason for this is that the Office of Public Information lacks the resources to do the job. The

Committee therefore urges that both the Staff and Budget of this department be expanded.

3. National citizens organizations specializing in the field of world affairs should focus their primary efforts on reaching and stimulating their own members and those community leaders who are developing an interest in world affairs. Rather than trying to reach a wide audience directly, they should work in cooperation with organizations having larger memberships.

4. Civic and fraternal organizations have a great opportunity for broadening public understanding of world affairs by sponsoring programs that relate world affairs to the special interests of their members.

¹ *The New York Times Magazine* "Report on Russia's Big Red School House," June 22, 1958.

² *The Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly*, April 1958.

³ *The New York Times*, November 24, 1957.

⁴ *The New York Times*, November 14, 1957.

⁵ The cities surveyed were Dallas, Texas; Kansas City, Missouri; Louisville, Kentucky; Tulsa, Oklahoma; Nashville, Tennessee; Portland, Oregon; Detroit, Michigan; Boston, Massachusetts; Boise, Idaho; Muncie, Indiana; Raleigh, North Carolina; Binghamton, New York. A special study was made in Los Angeles, California.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.

NEW MATERIALS

Educators Progress Service (Randolph, Wisconsin) has issued revised editions of three of its extremely useful resource guides for teachers and curriculum personnel:

Educator's Guide to Free Films, 1958 Edition, 616 pages. \$7.00. Classifies and describes 4013 motion pictures which may be borrowed free of charge, 741 of which were not listed in the last edition.

Educators' Guide to Free Slidefilms, 1958 edition, 206 pages, \$6.00. Classifies and describes 703 free slidefilms, including 71 sets of slides. 102 appear for the first time.

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials, 1958 edition. 318 pages, \$6.50. Primarily useful to teachers of the elementary grades, this volume is a carefully winnowed list of 1255 free maps, bulletins, pamphlets, exhibits, charts, and books.

Asian Studies. The Asia Society (18 E. 50 St., New York 22, N. Y.) has assembled an experimental packet of materials designed to supplement textbooks, and other school or community sources on Ceylon, India, Nepal, and Pakistan.

Aviation Education. The Materials of In-

struction Committee of the National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Ave., NW., Washington, D. C., has just published *Pictures, Pamphlets, and Packets*, a 16-page source list of more than 240 free and inexpensive aviation education aids (teaching) free of charge.

FILMS

Theodore Roosevelt—American. 28 min. sound. Rental. Association Films, Inc., Broad at Elm St., Ridgefield, N. J. Documentary film makes successful use of political parties, cartoons, newspaper headlines, oil paintings, campaign posters, and early newsreel footage, on this dynamic leader. Explains his "big stick" policy.

Education in America: 17th and 18th Centuries. 16 min. Color. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago, Ill. The early beginnings of early American education are re-enacted in actual locations of Dame Schools, Latin Grammar Shools, church schools and pauper shools.

Education in America: the 19th Century. 16 min. Color. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films. Shows the development of free public schools from the Northwest Ordinance to 1900, including the westward movement, struggle for tax support and state control.

Education in America: 20th Century Developments. 16m. Sound. Color. Black and white. Coronet Films. Deals with the effects of the industrial revolution on education in America; the influence of Herbert, Dewey, and others; the appearance of the junior high school and graduate education; federal aid to education; the G.I. Bill; and recent Supreme Court decisions.

Citizenship in Action. 16m. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. High school students express their thoughts about the qualities of a good citizen in the opening scenes, followed by an adult's point of

view and examples of good citizenship seen within a community.

San Francisco, 1955. 17 min. Rental. United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. Pictures the major events that transpired at the San Francisco conference at which the U.N. was formed and its charter adopted.

The United Nations and World Disputes. 21 min. Rental/sale. United World Films, Inc. Here is presented the story of the U.N.'s part in contributing to the settlement of disputes which have threatened world peace since 1945.

Town Meeting of the World. 30 min. Sale/rental. United World Films, Inc. Presents the General Assembly in terms of a typical town meeting, explaining its organization, function, and operations.

The Korean Story. 20 min. Sale/rental. United World Films, Inc. Describes the developments preceding the Korean War, the attempts to unify North and South Korea, the North Korean invasion, and the war from the beginning to the final truce talks.

A Day with the F.B.I. 18 min. Sound. Sale. International Film Bureau, 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill. Shows the physical lay-out of the F.B.I., its crime laboratory, gigantic filing system, and the training of a G-man.

FILMSTRIPS

Man Without a Country. 60 fr. Color. Sale. Films for Education, 1066 Chapel St., New Haven, Conn. Tells the story of Philip Nolan who was accused of treason for collaborating with Aaron Burr. In a burst of passion at his trial, Nolan wished he would never hear of the U.S. again. His wish was granted. For 55 years until his death he was never permitted ashore in the U.S. nor did he hear of it again until his last moments.

The Race for Space. 58 fr. Black and white. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The N. Y. Times*, 229 W. 43 St., New York, N. Y. Takes up in detail the current embryo steps in space travel, such as "shots"

to the moon, and also looks back at centuries of scientific research, and into a future that makes reality of science fiction.

Foundations of Democracy in the U. S. Set of 7. Color. Sale. Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand St., Detroit 11, Mich. Pictures in colorful detail are these seven filmstrips showing how the thirteen colonies became an independent nation:

1. The Colonists Are
Freedom Loving43 fr.
2. Colonial Freedoms are
Threatened42 fr.
3. Fighting Begins in the North44 fr.
4. Independence is Declared40 fr.
5. War in the Middle Colonies
and the Northwest43 fr.
6. War on the Sea and in the
South45 fr.
7. Writing the Constitution41 fr.

The American Economy. 58 fr. Black and white. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The N. Y. Times*. Takes up the elements that have made the U.S. the richest nation in the world; the changes in industry, business, finance, and the economic framework of democracy; the problems of slumps, and the role of government.

Growth of the U. S. Set of 6. Color. Sale. Jam Handy Organization. Presents a vivid dramatization of the struggle to extend the boundaries of the U.S. from ocean to ocean:

1. The Southwest Frontier45 fr.
2. The Northwest Territory40 fr.
3. The Louisiana Purchase42 fr.
4. The Oregon Territory42 fr.
5. The Texas Annexation38 fr.
6. California and the Southwest45 fr.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

A Profile of Primitive Culture. By Elman R. Service. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. xiv, 474. \$6.00.

This book might better have been titled *Profiles of Twenty Primitive Cultures*, first, because there is no single profile of primitive cultures, and second, because the author provides what is almost wholly a description of each of the cultures selected rather than an analysis or cross-cultural comparison. What emerges is an interesting summary of twenty societies, from which the reader, if he has the will and the background, can do a certain amount of cross-cultural comparing. But the book would be much improved by a section devoted to showing the meaning of the massive detail the description encompasses. Only in the preface is any appreciable explanation attempted.

The book is logically organized, each sec-

tion dealing with societies living on a given level of social organization, and each of the twenty chapters following the same pattern in the presentation of data. Primitive societies are held to exist on four basic levels of social complexity: the band, the tribe, the primitive state, and the modern folk society. Four bands, eight tribes, four primitive states, and four modern folk societies are discussed. The author holds that differences in societies depend upon (1) the level of economic productivity, (2) the habitat, and (3) the historical experience, or contacts with other societies. The societies selected are not necessarily the most unusual or interesting examples of variation at these points, but are those that appear to be most typical of each level of organization. Each chapter gives some slight attention to the physical types of people and to the habitat,

and then proceeds to more lengthy presentation of economic life, tools, food, clothing, shelter, family and kinship, birth, adolescence, and burial customs, mythology, and contacts with other societies.

One cannot read this book without increased respect for the ingenuity of "primitives," nor, as the author indicates, without a certain sense of regret at the loss of human knowledge that will ensue when these cultures disappear through extermination, assimilation, or transformation, as they become involved with expanding industrial civilizations. The book will appeal to general readers, and to students as supplementary reading in courses in anthropology, sociology, or geography. Unfortunately, however, it will not give anyone much idea of the principles of anthropology.

There are numerous illustrations, a bibliography for each chapter, a glossary, and end-paper maps showing the locations of the twenty societies.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

A Short History of the Far East. By Kenneth Scott Latourette. (Third Edition). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1957. Pp. xiv, 754. \$6.00.

This, the third edition of a, by now, well-recognized college text, introduces a summary of the eastern Pacific lands plus India and parts of Australasia. Both geography and history aid in this survey which, as Part 1, covers roughly one-third of the book. The remainder of the volume deals with this same area in terms of "modern" history beginning generally with the 1850's and continuing through the Second World War and its no less stormy aftermath.

Indeed, the last chapter headings, "Continuation of the Storm" and "The Mounting Tide of Nationalism" serve to indicate the unfinished nature of such a work and, of course, the inability of any historical study made at this time to deal absolutely and finally with the men and events of the moment.

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Moreover, Latourette, who is Sterling Professor of Missions and Oriental History *Emeritus* in Yale University, admits the difficulty of completeness and sure perspective in a special introduction to this new edition: "the rapid progress of events in the part of the world with which it deals have made advisable another revision. . . . It is hoped that these additions will assist in familiarizing readers with a knowledge of this crucial part of the world."

A trite fact—but a frequently forgotten one—is that the history and problems of the Far East have been profoundly influenced by the geographic setting. With only a few exceptions, the great indigenous cultural developments—themselves separated by mountain, sea, and desert—remained aloof from the mainstream of the Near East-Afro-European civilizations. Indeed, not until the 19th and 20th centuries did Westerners come in with such force that the major peoples of the Far East were forced—by the very na-

ture of the events—to radically reconstruct their cultures to meet this gravest threat to their sometimes four thousand-year-old way of life.

The impact of the old and new came forcibly to the attention of the Atlantic world at the beginning of World War II. Since then it is to be doubted that anyone can be found who still tends to minimize the geopolitical position, resources—both human and material—or world significance of the nations of the Far East.

Latourette's book is clearly and simply written. In fact, so straightforward is his account, and so unrecondite the vocabulary he has chosen, *A Short History of the Far East* may well be used with profit in advanced sections of world history or especially in connection with eleventh and twelfth grade American history or Contemporary Problems.

A series of appropriate maps is found at the conclusion of a *Short History* and this plus the fact that Professor Latourette invariably essays the inter-weaving of those culture facets such as legend, symbols, myth, and theme with his presentation of the political and the economic account makes his history a very satisfactory one for general reading as well as for the stated school purpose.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Montana State University
Missoula, Montana

Doctors in Gray: The Confederate Medical Service. By Horace Herndon Cunningham. Baton Rouge, La.: State Univ. Press, 1958. Pp. 338, \$6.00.

Cunningham has produced a fairly competent volume on a subject which many persons, including the reviewer, have written about. No one to date, however, had regarded the subject as worth the time and effort required for a volume of this size.

The organization of the book is analytical, by subjects: hospitals, disease, surgery and so on. These chapters are still further broken down into short sections, sometimes but a

page or two in length. This plan serves to give the reader, immediately, definite bits of information. There is no place, however, not even in the concluding chapter, where these hundreds of small details are integrated into a meaningful conclusion.

The illustrations are not interesting. North Carolina is too heavily featured, among the surgeons' portraits. One misses Surgeon General Moore, with his magnificent whiskers. A better picture of Chimborazo, one of the greatest of all military hospitals, should somehow be unearthed.

Appropriations for medical purposes by the Confederate Congress are simply totaled up, with no comment (pp. 274-76). Since their dollar total was some 60% greater than that of the Union service, obviously some explanation is needed.

The industry of the author is praiseworthy. As a work of history, the volume leaves much to be desired. It will be useful to the busy Civil War historian.

COURTNEY ROBERT HALL

Queens College
New York City

Systematic Sociology: An Introduction to the Study of Society. By Karl Mannheim. Edited by J. S. Erös and W. A. C. Stewart. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. xxx, 169. \$6.00.

This short book and the twenty-page preface by the editors together give us a succinct picture of one of the leading European sociologists of the twentieth century. Mannheim, proscribed by Hitler in 1933, continued courses in England on systematic sociology and social structure, from which the editors have organized the present volume. Mannheim was a theoretical system-builder, in the best tradition of European sociology; yet he "also hoped that a true science of man and society could supply us with a guide for action and would function as a compass showing the way towards a better society and a more meaningful life." In his system-building, he eschewed single and simple explanations of human behavior, and sought a synthesis of contributions from

many fields of modern psychology and sociology. In his plans for social reform, he stressed first the need for a comprehensive knowledge of all social factors; "he never believed," write the editors, "in the power of pure ideas and goodwill" alone. A broad and inclusive theory of human behavior and social development is in order for social and cultural reform.

Dealing with most of the fundamental sociological concepts, the book gives a quick insight into theoretical sociology, but there is little attention to modern research, case work, field work, or statistical analysis. The book is divided into four parts: Man and His Psychic Equipment, the Most Elementary Social Processes, Social Integration, and Social Stability and Social Change. It is in Part 2, where Mannheim deals with social contact, social distance, isolation, individualization, competition, selection, and cooperation, and in Part 3, where he deals with crowds and publics, organized social groups, the state, social classes, and political parties, that he is at his sociological best. The brevity of the book, however, means that it is the merest outline rather than a full-bodied treatise.

The editors have selected from Mannheim's own notes a bibliography for each of the twelve chapters.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

Living World History. By T. Walter Wallbank and Arnold Fletcher. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1958. Pp. 767. \$4.50.

If Oscars were awarded for textbooks, "Living World History" would be a strong contender this year for the most attractive textbook, best-illustrated book, best-organized, and very likely for the most teachable. Seldom does a new text create such a strong urge in the reader to want to teach with this book.

The superlative quality of the work is apparently the result of a carefully organ-

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1958 597 pages; illustrated \$6.00

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS
417 FIFTH AVENUE, N. Y. 16, N. Y.

ized team effort. The authors, both California teachers, were aided by an assemblage of talent including James Quillen as general editor, Jonathan McLendon for geography supplements, Julia Guyer for study aids, Della Thomas for study aids, Gladys Hoffpauir as teaching advisor, and Harley Mitchell, director.

It is well known in the social studies that the quality of text materials has improved remarkably in recent years with the utilization of the talents of specialists in the preparation of textbooks. This volume represents the pinnacle of performance.

From the opening section of nine historical maps in color to the histomap inside the back cover, the illustrative materials compel attention. Cartoons by Burr Shafer, time lines, maps, diagrams, and forceful photographs vie with the more conventional prints.

The volume includes over one hundred maps and well over five hundred other illustrations.

The twelve historical units strike a delicate time balance, from Neanderthal Man to the Suez grab and the birth of Ghana, with a substantial unit devoted to the non-European cultures. Each unit includes a section of several pages relating geographic concepts to the history.

The tone of the book is somehow suggestive of Hendrik Willem Van Loon's *Story of Mankind* in the sense it conveys of having been written by adults about adult ideas, yet successfully written for children. The book succeeds admirably in sustaining a highly challenging level of ideas and information, while reaching a broad level of readability through the well-chosen aids, superb style, and basic vocabulary. It should be highly adaptable for use with heterogeneous classes.

There is good reason to believe that *Living World History* will be widely adopted for use in high school courses in world history. Hazardous though it is to recommend a text book without first having tried it in the classroom, this volume appears to be the answer for the world history course. Classroom use may reveal flaws, but none that will prevent this from becoming a major text.

DONALD W. ROBINSON

Carlmont High School
Belmont, California

Egypt and the United Nations. New York: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. By Manhattan Publishing Co., 1957. Pp. xi, 197. \$3.00.

Prepared by a committee set up by the Egyptian Society of International Law, this volume forms part of a series of studies on international organization initiated by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. It describes how Egypt eventually joined the United Nations, "The Evolution of Egyptian Attitudes," the relation of Egypt to the Arab League and the Asian-African Group, and Egyptian Attitudes on Specific Questions. The conclusion is that "Egyptian

public opinion toward the United Nations has passed through successive phases of confidence, disillusionment, and renewed but guarded hope" (p. 113), and that "Egypt can be counted on to lend its support to any practical measures looking to the strengthening of an institution to which, in spite of many disillusionments, it has always given its loyal support" (p. 124). The appendix contains numerous "Principal Resolutions of the Council of the Arab League Relating to the United Nations" (pp. 128-184). If we remember that the report was prepared by international lawyers, then we might be also more tolerant toward the treatment of the topic, characterized by the legalistic approach and language. Only here and there can be found some interesting information (such as the outline of the major Egyptian political parties, p. 35).

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

The Romance of Capitalism. By Donald E. Cooke. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The John C. Winston Company, 1958. Pp. xxvi, 145. \$4.95.

This is an excellent book for supplementary assignments on the unit on the Industrial Revolution and the unit on Capitalism.

Teachers of the Social Studies will appreciate using this book, as it is a dramatic story of the American free enterprise system.

It will help young people of all nations understand what Capitalism is, how it began, how it grew and flourished, how it came to have enemies, and the problems that face Capitalism today.

The Romance of Capitalism tells the story of how such large corporations as DuPont and Ford were able to have a small start and develop into giants in business and provide security for hundreds of thousands of workers.

The reader will also find that the author has described both the virtues and the faults of Capitalism.

Interesting and vivid accounts are given

of the flying of the first airmail routes, the growing problems of labor and management, the stock market crash of 1929, the Depression, the New Deal, the development of atomic power, and the dawn of the new rocket and missile age.

The book is well illustrated and credit should be given to James Heugh for the splendid judgment he has used in emphasizing the various stories contained in the book.

DAVID W. HARR

Lincoln High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Henry George in the British Isles. By Elwood P. Lawrence. East Lansing: Michigan State University Press, 1957. Pp. 203. \$5.00.

Here is the story of the influence in the British Isles of the Philadelphia-born social and economic reformer, the single-taxer, Henry George.

This "Prophet of San Francisco," this "Apostle of Plunder," this American whose fame in England began with his arrest in Ireland as a suspicious character, is credited by the author with being the true catalyst of Britain's insurgent proletariat. "Henry George," he concludes, "played a major role in creating the state of mind which made the amelioration of Britain's social and economic ills a patent necessity."

The author, Elwood P. Lawrence, on leave from Michigan State University, has produced a scholarly and readable study of his paradoxical subject. Henry George, who came closer to seeing his program enacted in Britain than in his own country, was hailed by the Irish revolutionists and embraced by the Socialists, though he was neither revolutionist nor socialist himself.

The impressive influence George wielded on reform movements in the British Isles apparently resulted from a combination of his own strengths as humanitarian, politician, and scholar, and from a unique series of circumstances, not the least of which was his arrest under the Prevention of Crimes Act.

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The arrest of an American writer (he was in Ireland as a correspondent for the *New York Irish World*) precipitated remarks in Commons which led to attention in the *London Times*. This publicity brought into public notice this Yankee reformer whose notions of a tax upon the value of land made him the darling of the Irish Land League.

The maturation of his theories, from a hazy statement that the land monopoly was the cause of poverty to his later refinement of the single-tax theory is the meat of this book.

Agitator, utopian, scholar, his true importance is difficult to assess. Granted that every inspired reformer influences to some degree the achievements of those who follow, it is difficult to accept the enormous impact which Lawrence ascribes to him. He seems to link George directly with the fate of the Socialist Party, the Liberal movement, and even of the Labour Party fifty years after George's death. This enthusiasm for the im-

portance of one's subject is excusable when it is as restrained as it is in this volume.

More serious to this reader is the complete absence of attention to Henry George the man. The author is properly concerned with George's thoughts and with their effect on British political thought. His objective, scholarly attention to this central problem allows him no room for the tempting side-paths of personality, motivation, or any of the presently popular psychological approaches to biography. Consequently Henry George does not come alive in this volume.

The book should not be criticized for what it does not attempt. What it does it does superbly well. It presents a mature, well-documented evaluation of the work of an American newspaperman, writer, and speaker, whose impact on British thinking should not be ignored or forgotten.

DONALD W. ROBINSON

Carlmont High School
Belmont, California

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PAMPHLETS

Bantam Book Company, New York, has prepared the following books that will be of interest to Social Studies teachers.

1. *The Idiot*, by Fyodor M. Dostoevsky, Price \$.75
2. *Four Great Plays*, by Anton Chekhov, Price \$.50
3. *Four Great Comedies*, by Wycherley and Congreve, Price \$.50
4. *The Octopus*, by Frank Norris, Price \$.50
5. *Lord Jim*, by Joseph Conrad, Price \$.50

The Maco Corporation, 480 Lexington Avenue, New York, has prepared a pamphlet, *The Family of Man*, which contains an exhibit of 503 pictures from 68 countries that will be helpful for use in Social Studies Classrooms. Price \$.50

ARTICLES

- "Should U.S. Stop Nuclear Tests?" *Foreign Policy Bulletin*, May 15, 1958
- "Inching Toward Disarmament," *The Na-*

tional Voter. Monthly publication of the League of Women Voters of the United States. October, 1958

"How Can Inspection be Made to Work?" By Seymour Melman, *Bulletin of the Atom Scientists*, September, 1958

"Crisis at the Antietam," by Bruce Cotton. *American Heritage*, August, 1958.

"A Fresh Look at the United Nations," by Joseph J. Sisco. *Department of State Bulletin*, June 9, 1958.

"Eleven Guns for the Grand Union," by Phillips Melville. *American Heritage*, October, 1958.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The High School in a New Era. Edited by Francis S. Chase and Harold A. Anderson. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1958. Pp. vii, 465. \$5.75.

Juvenile Delinquency. Edited by Joseph S. Roucek. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. xiv, 365. \$10.00.

Teaching Social Studies in High School. By Edgar B. Wesley and Stanley P. Wronski. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1958. Pp. xxxi, 628. \$6.00.

The People's Plato. By Henry L. Drake. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. Book IV, 633. \$7.50.

Live and Let Live. By Eustace Chessier. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. vii, 124. \$4.75.

Face the Future. By John M. Work. New York: Vantage Press, 1958. Pp. xlii, 178. \$3.00.

Discovering the Real Self. By E. F. McDaniel. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. xv, 116. \$3.75.

Ultimate Desires. By Timothy Cooney. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. vii, 100. \$2.75.

The Negro in American Society. Published under the Research Council. The Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida, 1958. Pp. vii, 89. \$3.00.

Family Relationships and Delinquent Behavior. By F. Ivan Nye. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958. Pp. xvii, 168. \$4.95.

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